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THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

The winter meeting of American educators held in Chicago during the last week in February was a conspicuous success. It was, first of all, a numerical success. It approached in size the large summer sessions of the National Education Association of the late nineties and the early years of this century. In the second place, it was administered with a large degree of success. The plan of giving the general meetings the right of way and of holding the secondary meetings at times and places which permitted concentration of effort on the part of congenial groups was much better worked out and much more effective than any plan of organization tried before.

By far the most conspicuous success of the session, however, was reached in the quality of the discussions. During the last few years investigators have presented material which showed that little new investigation had been carried on during the preceding months. This is, perhaps, explained by the general social upheavals through which the world has passed. But evidences begin to appear that investigators and administrators are getting a new hold on their problems and are devising vigorous methods of solving them. The coming year promises to be a more productive

year than the past because of the stimulus which was given to clear and original educational thinking through this meeting.

It is not possible to review any large part of the work of the meeting. The educational periodicals of the country will bring the results of the sessions to their readers in the coming months, but it is permissible to select for special comment two outstanding lines of discussion. This is done in the two news notes following.

THE STATUS OF INTELLIGENCE TESTS

Perhaps the topic most frequently discussed at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence was that of intelligence tests. The National Society for the Study of Education offered two programs devoted entirely to intelligence tests and their use. The same subject also featured in one of the afternoon sessions of the National Society of College Teachers of Education and was prominent in the programs of the National Association of Secondary School Principals and the National Association of Directors of Educational Research (now the Educational Research Association).

The constructive workers and their critics seem to be approaching a common ground. The former are admitting more freely certain limitations of the tests; and the latter, as freely, certain spheres of usefulness for them.

It seems clear from reliable studies reported at the meeting that intelligence tests are proving of service in the classification of first-grade pupils in Detroit; in the organization of special classes in Jackson, Michigan; in the classification of pupils into homogeneous groups in the University of Minnesota High School; and in the admission of Freshmen at Columbia and Brown universities—to mention only a few of the instances where the tests are being carefully and practically employed. Classification of pupils for instructional purposes seems at present to be the most promising educational application of intelligence tests.

On the critical side, it was shown that the usefulness of intelligence tests in the classification of pupils will largely depend upon (1) the accuracy with which the tests measure general intelligence and (2) the accuracy with which the tests predict educational achievement.

It is important to note that the problem of classification has forced a shift of interest and emphasis from test norms to individual scores and that, while considerable work has been done to determine norms for tests, almost nothing has been done by the makers of tests to determine the probable error of individual scores. Data were presented showing the extreme unreliability of many individual scores, the relatively large average error of such scores, and the resultant error in classification when an attempt is made to organize sections of a large group according to intelligence.

As regards the use of intelligence tests for the prediction of school achievement, it was shown that the dependable coefficients of correlation between intelligence scores and achievement measures seem to cluster between .40 and .60 and that attempts to classify pupils by intelligence scores into homogeneous groups for school work are subject to an error at times as great as 50 per cent of all the pupils classified. As a result of such findings, it is being recognized, on the one hand, that the importance of intelligence as a factor in educational achievement has been exaggerated by many psychologists and, on the other hand, that the importance of the dynamic traits has been greatly underestimated.

The most dramatic attack on mental measurement took place in one of the meetings of the College Teachers of Education. Professor Bagley directed the broadside under the title, "Educational Determinism, or Democracy and the I.Q." The speaker's attractive exposition and vigorous presentation captured the interest of his audience, if they did not win adherence to his view. It was clearly evident that an educational philosophy was sadly at odds with certain trends of educational science. The notion of the constancy of the I.Q. was assailed as both fallacious and dangerous. Education can be made safe for democracy only by abolishing such a conception. In opposition to the speaker, his critics deplored his partiality for data gathered from popular sources and his corresponding neglect of the results of careful investigations.

After listening to the discussions, one came away with the impression that the mental-testing movement promises much of value to education, that the program of educational application

as at present conceived by the extremists lacks scientific sanction for many of its features, and that it would be unfortunate for the tests and for education in general if a program of classification on the basis of tests were generally accepted as a substitute for the present promotional scheme.

FREDERICK S. BREED

FEDERAL PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION

It required courage as well as administrative insight to appear before the Department of Superintendence with a paper criticizing federal subsidies of education. When Professor Inglis opened the discussion on the first night of the Department's program with an argument against federal subsidies, he received very little sympathy from his audience. The superintendents of the country have been told for the last three and one-half years that a subsidy bill can pass and is soon going to pass, and they have cultivated an appetite for that sort of thing. They were shocked and unable to see the truth when Professor Inglis began.

They were relieved and enthusiastic when Professor Strayer, in the second address, once more put before them the eloquent plea for national participation in education. Some members of the audience mistook this for another assurance that federal subsidies are just appearing over the ridge and gave vent to their desire for funds in loud and prolonged applause.

As the meeting went on, however, and especially in the subsequent days of the Department's sessions, the word began to pass around that sober thinking was beginning to take the place of boisterous applause and vague platitudes. Judge Towner has publicly called attention to the fact that insistence at this time on the subsidy feature of the bill will defeat the whole project. Dr. Withers put the case in a forceful way when he pointed out the fact that the bill had served its purpose and that the time had arrived for a new canvass of the whole situation.

Dr. Capen, who has all along been an advocate of constructive participation in education by the federal government, read a paper which made a profound impression following Professor Inglis' first bold presentation of the truth about subsidies.

In this connection it is proper to say that there is a recent bulletin published by the University of Illinois, entitled *Proceedings of a Conference on the Relation of the Federal Government to Education*, which everyone ought to read who wishes to form a well-balanced view on the problems under discussion. There is much in this bulletin which, like the sober afterthought of the Department, gives one a broader view of the relation of the federal government to education.

Readers of the *School Review* who have not seen the articles in the February and March issues of the *Elementary School Journal* may be interested to read the collections of judgments there presented as supplementary to the Illinois bulletin and to the discussions at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence.

The summary of the whole matter is that the tumult and the shouting have been heard; and, whatever legitimate purpose they may have had, that purpose has been served. The time has come for careful, close thinking on essentials. Educators recognize education as a vital national concern. Education is not begging for financial support; it is not overlooked in American public life; but it is in need of a new and broader organization. This new and broader organization ought to be of a form that will appeal to all the people of the nation, to business men and women, to industrial men and women, and to professional men and women of all classes, as something more than a plea on the part of teachers for political recognition. National participation in education ought to be part of a comprehensive program of human conservation. The time is ripe for the formulation of such a broad program.

THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM OF LOS ANGELES

At the opening of schools in January of this year the high-school teachers of Los Angeles began a systematic study of the curricula offered in their schools and of the possibilities of revision. They are carrying on this work under the guidance of Professor Bobbitt, who is spending three months in Los Angeles.

As a first step in determining the principles legitimate in high-school education, Professor Bobbitt made a careful comparative study of the existing courses of study and requirements in the

Los Angeles schools and issued a bulletin from which the following sections are quoted as typical.

The printed courses of study have been analyzed by way of discovering what *appear* to be the underlying assumptions and principles on the basis of which they have been built. The following list presents those that appear to be generally, or at least most frequently, accepted. To many of them, there are outstanding exceptions, since the high schools are clearly in disagreement relative to many things.

Concerning the list, certain questions should be answered. (1) Which of the following do you accept as valid curriculum principles or assumptions? (2) Which ones would you reject? (3) Which ones should be modified? What do you suggest?

THE APPARENT ASSUMPTIONS

1. General training is necessary for all high-school students.
2. Specialized occupational training is also desirable for all secondary students whose training ends with the high school.
3. Proper general training may result from courses very differently constituted.
4. A certain amount of subject specialization is necessary for proper general training.
5. Indispensable ingredients in the general training are:

English	2 years
United States history and civics	1 year
A laboratory science	1 year
Physical training	all grades

While other things are valuable, no one of them is necessary to the general training of all students.

6. The general training content or series of experiences, needed in common by all boys and girls in the schools, constitutes but a minor portion of the total general-training program.
7. Outside of the prescribed minimum essentials, the content of the general-training course is a matter of relative indifference.
8. Within limits set by minimum requirements, the students themselves are competent to choose the content of their general training; this is especially the case with those who are not going to college.
9. General all-round training of boys and girls for the all-round manifold interests and activities of cultivated adulthood is undesirable. Courses should be limited and specialized.
10. For general training, the specific objectives in terms of human characteristics and abilities need not be made definite.
11. For occupational training the special abilities to be developed must be kept in view.

30. Ancient history provides a valuable—though not indispensable—element in the general training of those who take the general college preparatory course.

31. Ancient history is little needed in the general training of those college preparatory students who take the scientific or technical preparatory courses.

32. Ancient history is not a necessary or even desirable portion of the general training of most of those taking technical or vocational courses. For the latter it is justified only when occupationally valuable.

41. Economic history is not a necessary or even desirable ingredient in the general training of any student.

42. Economic geography is not a necessary or desirable portion of the general training of any student.

43. Economic history has only moderate value for the specialized training of commercial students.

44. Except for a few students, only the history of Europe and the history of the United States are needed in the general training of students; the history of other portions of the earth is not needed.

60. General science is of moderate value in the early general training of high-school students. It is not a necessity.

61. The occupational value of general science is greatest for normal preparatory and home economics students and least for commercial and trade students.

62. Biological science is of little value in the general training of young men and women.

63. Biological science has considerable occupational value for home economics students, a moderate amount for art and normal preparatory students, and little or none for students preparing for other occupations.

64. Physics or chemistry, but not both, is practically indispensable in the general training of those who go to college.

80. Foreign language is a necessary portion of the general training of those who go to college.

81. Foreign language is a moderately valuable, but not a necessary, portion of the general training of those who do not go to college.

82. In the general training, ancient and modern languages are of practically equal value.

83. The only modern languages of sufficient value for general training are French and Spanish.

84. German is of no value for either general or technical training.

90. Algebra and geometry are necessary ingredients in the general training of those going to college.

91. Algebra and geometry are moderately valuable, though not necessary, in the general training of students who do not go to college.

92. Beyond the arithmetic of the elementary grades, no mathematics of any sort is necessary to the general training of those not going to college.

93. Algebra and geometry, except for engineering students, are of little occupational value; their justification lies mainly in their value for general training; and this latter value varies for the students in different courses.

94. For commercial students, algebra has a little value for general training; geometry, practically none.

95. Algebra and geometry are much more valuable for the general training of girls in home economics courses than for girls of similar natures and capacities in general courses.

96. The students' needs of mathematics for general training vary greatly from course to course in the same school.

EXPERIMENTS IN INDIVIDUALIZATION AND ACCELERATION

In reply to a request from the *School Review*, Vice-Principal D. H. Deihl, of the Boys' Technical High School, Milwaukee, has described the plan by which academic subjects in that institution are being placed on the same basis as shop subjects. Experiments at present center on the related academic and technical instruction of the eight trade departments of the school. If these experiments, in English for example, are successful in caring for individual differences and in abandoning the bugaboo of time credits, that success may serve as a leverage for prying loose from their conservatism some of the other traditional subjects and may induce them to break up their rigid routine, their uniform instruction, and their tardy promotions.

The fundamental points of the present experiments are: (1) abandoning the fixed period of class attendance, (2) adopting a fixed quantity of material of instruction, (3) shifting emphasis from the group method to the individual method of instruction. The trade courses in this school are made up of fixed units of work; and while the average student completes them in from two to two and one-half years, no definite time requirement is made. The related work in English and other subjects, formerly taught in two-hour and three-hour semester courses with a tremendously high rate of mortality, is now handled on exactly the same basis as the shop work. The trade adviser, in conference with the instructor of the related subject, lays out a course which he believes to be sufficient for his trade. This course is arranged in checking units, very much on the same plan as certain correspondence work is divided. The student has daily periods with the instructor and proceeds as rapidly as his ability and industry will permit, the instructor advising and checking as demanded in each individual case and, as opportunity arises, conducting general class demonstrations or discussions. Provision is made for both oral and written work. A high standard is demanded; the student repeats, if necessary,

until he thoroughly grasps each unit. Thus there are no failures, although some students require three or four times as long for a given course as others. This is not surprising when it is considered that their preliminary preparation varies all the way from six to twelve grades.

The size of the individual working groups has been set at a maximum of from fifteen to twenty, depending on the subject. This was consented to by the administration on the assumption that there would be sufficient acceleration in the upper section of the groups to enable the instructor to handle the same total number of individuals in a given time as was possible under the old arrangement. It is as yet too early to tell whether this will be the case or not. As soon as one student finishes the course, another is immediately assigned in his place, thus keeping the maximum capacity filled. This maximum is at present arbitrary but will be established later on the basis of the experiments now under way. Different instructors naturally are able to handle different-sized groups, depending upon their facility in this type of instruction.

One of the most notable effects of this work up to the present time has been the creation or strengthening of the desire on the part of the instructors concerned to extend the benefits of this method to their regular high-school classes. A way will no doubt be found to adapt it in part, at least, in spite of overcrowded conditions and the traditional credit system.

THE KENTUCKY SURVEY

There are several paragraphs at the end of the chapter on the high school in the Kentucky survey which ought to be widely read and carefully pondered. They set forth in a concrete way a problem which the student of education has seen looming larger and larger on the horizon in recent years. They show to the pessimist how disastrous has been the haphazard and uncentralized development of American education. They prove to the optimist that out of the mistakes and incoordinations of the past there is sure to come wisdom and a plan of better and more universal education.

The paragraphs are as follows:

Kentucky high schools are mostly small. Of the 432, 234 are one- and two-teacher schools. A single small county has 9 high schools, only 2 of which are of reasonable size. One cannot say offhand how many high schools a county should have, but it can be stated as a principle that the small high school is as undesirable as the small elementary school. Indeed, the high cost of secondary education and the greater relative efficiency of the large over the small high school, with respect to both the range of opportunities offered and the quality of instruction, make the consolidation of small high schools as imperative as the consolidation of one-teacher elementary schools.

Small high schools have too often been established to meet a local demand, without regard to the high-school needs of the county viewed as a whole. It is one of the great advantages of the county unit that a comprehensive view can be taken of the entire situation. Every high school established should be an essential part of the well-conceived plan aiming to bring high-school advantages within reach of all the children of the county. It may still be necessary, on account of transportation difficulties, to establish small high schools with one- and two-year courses, but the number of high schools in a county must be kept to the minimum, if cost and efficiency are to be taken into account.

The existence of so many small high schools, and the attempt of so many to give a four-year course when they have neither the requisite teaching force nor equipment, make imperative the adoption of appropriate high-school standards. On the basis of acceptable standards, instead of having 220 fairly good public high schools, Kentucky has probably not more than 60 good high schools at this time. The state should know the truth and seek to increase the number of standard schools, rather than rest content under the impression that the high-school situation is even fairly satisfactory. In the application of higher standards, private schools should not be exempt. The state department of education should possess the authority to visit, classify, and inspect private schools in order that the public may not be misled.

Three (3) counties have no high school; 56 counties have nothing approaching a standard high school; 52 graded school districts neither have high schools of their own nor make provision for the high-school tuition of their pupils elsewhere. Many other graded school districts and even fourth-class cities sacrifice their elementary schools in attempting to support high schools. In short, the cost of good high schools is more than a poor county or community can bear. For this reason no state has been able to develop an efficient high school system without special state aid. Such assistance is especially needed in Kentucky owing to the great differences in wealth and number of children to be educated. Unless Kentucky sets apart a portion of the common school fund to be used in giving special high-school aid, or the general assembly can make an appropriation from the general treasury for this purpose, high-school progress will be extremely uneven and slow. Failure to give the necessary special state aid would be unfortunate. The state must look to the high schools if the common schools are to have better trained teachers; on the high schools depend the elevation of the general intelligence of the people and the development of the colleges and universities, to which the state must look for leaders.

FINAL REPORT OF THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON
MATHEMATICAL REQUIREMENTS

The complete report of the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements is in press and will, it is hoped, be ready for distribution in April. It is published under the title *The*

Reorganization of Mathematics in Secondary Education and will constitute a volume of about five hundred pages.

Through the generosity of the General Education Board the National Committee is in a position to distribute large numbers of this report free of charge. It is hoped that the funds available will be sufficient to place a copy of this report in every regularly maintained high-school library and also to furnish every individual with a copy free of charge who is sufficiently interested to ask for it. Requests from individuals for this report are now being received. They should be sent to J. W. Young, Chairman, Hanover, New Hampshire. Individuals interested in securing a copy of this report are urged to send in their requests as early as possible. If the number of requests received exceeds the number the Committee is able to distribute, the earlier requests will receive the preference.

SCHOLARSHIP OPEN TO HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS

For the third consecutive year, a four years' university scholarship is being offered high-school students to encourage them in the study of highway economics, according to an announcement from the office of the Highway and Highway Transport Education Committee.

The scholarship, won previously by two young women residing respectively in Idaho and West Virginia, is given by Harvey S. Firestone, Akron, Ohio, a member of the Committee, for the best essay written on the subject, "How Good Roads Are Developing My Community," submitted in a national essay contest. Essays, according to rules recently announced, are not to exceed seven hundred words in length and must be in the hands of a high-school teacher or principal not later than May 1. All students of high-school grade, including both public and private schools, are eligible to compete.

The aims of the contest, according to the Committee, are the stimulation of thought and discussion and study of the problems of highway transport, highway economics, and highway engineering, as a corollary to a course in these subjects now being prepared for the Committee by the leading economists and engineers of the country for use in colleges and universities.

The conduct of the contest necessitates an organization for each state, being effected in the majority of instances through the state department of public instruction or through a leading state university. These organizations, it is said, will receive the essays for their respective states, make a selection of the best submitted, and forward it to the office of the Committee at Washington. Among the state universities that will conduct the contest in their respective commonwealths are the University of Kentucky, the University of North Carolina, the University of South Carolina, the University of Virginia, the University of North Dakota, the University of Maryland, the University of South Dakota, the University of Tennessee, and many others.

The contest last year was won by Miss Garland Johnson, a pupil in the Bridgeport, West Virginia, high school. Miss Johnson, upon graduation, will attend one of the leading women's colleges, all tuition and reasonable expenses being defrayed by the donor of the scholarship. The first scholarship offered was awarded Miss Katherine F. Butterfield, Weiser, Idaho, who is now in her second year in college under the terms of the scholarship. The scholarship is valued at not less than \$4,000.

Complete rules of the contest, a bibliography, suggestions, and other information may be had upon application to the Highway and Highway Transport Education Committee, Willard Building, Washington, D.C.

News Items from the School of Education of the University of Chicago

SUMMER COURSES IN HOME ECONOMICS

The home economics courses for the Summer Quarter of 1922 are planned to meet the needs of teachers and supervisors and those expecting to engage in other activities in the field of home economics. There are several courses in methods of teaching which discuss the choice of subject-matter, methods of presentation, available textbooks, and the educational status of the subject. The discussions of the supervisor's problems include reports of the results of tests and other educational researches as applied to home economics.

The numerous recent developments in home economics are given large recognition in various special courses. For example, home management is emphasized by discussions of such problems as the economic value of women's home labor and by practical work on the efficiency of household equipment. Household art courses include garment construction, millinery, costume design, elementary and advanced textiles, the buying of textiles, and interior decoration. In food and nutrition, the work offered ranges from food preparation to advanced laboratory courses, reading courses, and research courses in food chemistry and nutrition.

Interest in training for health teaching brings to the University for the third summer a group of underweight children to serve as a demonstration child health class. Two courses are closely related to the work with these children, namely, Nutrition Classes for Children and Nutrition in the Public School Program. The latter is planned especially for superintendents, principals, and grade teachers.

The needs of the school lunch manager are considered in the courses in institution cooking, management, and equipment, all using the cafeterias of the University as laboratories.

All of the regular members of the Faculty will be in residence. In addition, there will be a number of visiting instructors. Among the latter are Regina Friant, formerly Smith-Hughes supervisor in Missouri (Methods of Teaching Food and Nutrition, and Home Management); Dr. Ruth McGuire, Chicago Lying-In Hospital Dispensary (Child Care); Pearle Ruby, Kansas State Agricultural College (Nutrition); Mrs. Vera H. Loewen, wholesale milliner of Chicago (Millinery); Eleanor Davis, Simmons College (Clothing); Mrs. Mary Supple, Lewis Institute (Advanced Textiles); and Lillian Stevenson, University of Iowa (Experimental Cooking).

AN ANALYSIS OF GENERAL SCIENCE TEXTS

The subject of general science is so broad and comprehensive that it has been difficult to say just what should be included in a one-year course. Naturally the subject-matter chosen depends on the aims to be attained in teaching the subject. As long as these aims are not clearly defined, one of the most fruitful investigations is a comparative analysis of the textbooks in current use in this subject. Such an analysis was recently made by Orlando E. Overn, A.M., instructor in the Anaconda (Montana) High School.

Twelve textbooks were included in the study, embracing all of the texts in common use. Each book was carefully analyzed, divided into topics and subtopics, and the number of pages devoted to each topic recorded. The main topics were then classified under the four general heads of physics, chemistry, biology, and earth science, and tabulated with their subdivisions.

The topic given most prominence in the twelve books as a whole was found to be the subject of mechanics. Other topics in the order of importance are: weather and climate, plants, food and nutrition, bacteriology, heat, water (uses and supply), light, electricity, and combustion. These are the ten main topics treated in the twelve books examined. Ten others have been listed, but none of them were given much prominence except in a few texts. Thus, Snyder's text gives undue prominence to the subject of erosion, rocks, and topography; Hessler's, to the human body; and Trafton's, to the lower animals.

ADULT EDUCATION IN THE ARMY

Z. T. EGARDNER
Camp Grant, Illinois

Section 27 of The National Defence Act of June 3, 1916, provides that "in addition to military training, soldiers, while in the active service, shall hereafter be given the opportunity to study and receive instruction upon educational lines of such a character as to increase their military efficiency and enable them to return to civil life better equipped for industrial, commercial, and general business occupations." The General Staff and its advisory board agreed from the very beginning that increased military, industrial, and business efficiency presupposes at least a minimum of manipulative skill in the three R's, and some training in the fundamentals of citizenship. Since the great majority of the enlisted men were found to be deficient in both, it was decided that the vocational training of the army students should be supplemented by a course in general education.

To meet effectively the many peculiar problems which were certain to arise in attempting to carry out such a program, a staff of specialists was charged with the task of developing means and methods of instruction more fully adapted to the needs of the army student than those in general use. Camp Grant, Illinois, was chosen as the experimental station, and the schools of Camp Grant served as a laboratory in which the scheme was tried out and tested in daily classroom work during two school terms. The entire program of general education was put into operation in the Division School of Camp Grant during the school year 1920-21. In order to obtain as reasonably exact and objective a judgment as possible of the practicability of the entire scheme, objective progress tests were developed and applied during the school year, and full records were kept.

It should be explained that this report concerns itself with the second course in general education only, and not with the

recruit educational center, the school for illiterates, or for men not in command of a reading and writing knowledge of English.

THE STUDENT BODY

Although more than twenty-two hundred men applied for admission at the opening of the term, only about thirteen hundred could be accommodated in the vocational schools of Camp Grant, and not more than approximately two-thirds of that number could attend the second course in general education. Due to transfers of regiments to other army posts and to the fact that a considerable number of men in attendance at the schools received their discharge from the army before the end of the school year, complete records of only 661 men are at hand. According to their own statements, 76 per cent of these 661 men joined the army on account of the educational opportunities which the schools promised. Sixty-one per cent enlisted for one year of service, and 39 per cent for three years, a good proportion of the latter being "old-timers," men who had seen service before. Sixty-two per cent of the 661 men were native-born of native-born parents, 22 per cent were native-born of foreign-born parents, and only 16 per cent of the total were foreign-born of foreign-born parents.

The educational training of the 661 men prior to their enlistment, their mental age at the time of enrolment in the army schools, and the actual classification of the men during the first week of school, expressed in terms of public-school grades, are shown in Table I.

The figures relative to the intellectual maturity of the students and those which have reference to their actual command of the fundamentals of a general education at the time of their enrolment in the army schools were secured by objective standardized tests, either modified or specially developed for that purpose by the department of testing and grading of the army schools. These figures are of special interest since they show the mental caliber of the men whom the army receives for training. Consequently, and quite apart from every other consideration, they are a convincing argument for, and justification of, the army schools. Moreover, they also indicate how little of even the very fundamentals of a

general education a considerable number of pupils retain. Although 51 per cent of the 661 men had attended the eighth grade, and some even college, less than 12 per cent of all the men in question found themselves equal to the average eighth-grade pupil, while 43 per cent could not compete with the average sixth-grade pupil of our public schools.

TABLE I

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF 661 MEN ON THE BASIS OF PREVIOUS SCHOOL TRAINING,
MENTAL AGE, AND CLASSIFICATION AT TIME OF ENROLMENT IN THE ARMY
SCHOOLS AT CAMP GRANT

SCHOOL TRAINING PRIOR TO ENLISTMENT		MENTAL AGE AT TIME OF ENROLMENT		CLASSIFICATION AT TIME OF ENROLMENT	
Grade	Percentage	Number of Years	Percentage	Grade	Percentage
College.....	0.8	15 and over	6.4	VIII or above	11.7
High school.....	18.2	14-15.....	11.0	VII.....	20.4
VIII.....	31.9	13-14.....	18.8	VI.....	24.3
VII.....	17.0	12-13.....	22.8	V.....	16.1
VI.....	14.6	11-12.....	15.1	IV.....	18.3
V.....	7.5	10-11.....	17.2	III or below ..	9.1
IV.....	5.4	Less than 9	8.6		
III.....	1.9				
II.....	0.4				
I.....	0.3				
None.....	1.9				

Their deficiencies in the fundamentals of an elementary education, however, cannot be attributed altogether to the years that have elapsed since their attendance at school. Fifty and six-tenths per cent of these men were less than twenty years of age; only 7.9 per cent were more than twenty-five years of age; and the ages of 41.5 per cent ranged from twenty to twenty-five years at the time of their enrolment. Such comparative studies are bound to deepen the conviction that the growing demand for fundamental reforms in our educational systems is not all due to mere fault-finding.

On the occupational side, 36 per cent of the 661 men were skilled or clerical workers, 19 per cent factory hands, and 28 per cent farmers; 17 per cent classified themselves as common laborers or attended school until they enlisted in the army. Responsibility for the educational deficiencies of the group cannot, therefore, be

placed at the door of the shiftless and unskilled laborer. Neither is the low average in school work due to the presence in large numbers of ignorant foreigners, because only 16 per cent of the students were of foreign birth.

AIMS AND METHODS

In a pamphlet entitled *The Educational System in the United States Army* (October, 1920), the War Department outlines its policy with regard to army education as follows:

Education in the army is designed to serve a twofold purpose. (1) To train technicians and mechanics to meet the army's needs, and to raise the soldier's general intelligence in order to increase his military efficiency. (2) To fit the soldier for a definite occupation upon his return to civil life. Army training will, however, do more than fit a man into industry. It will bring to practical industrial training the culture that one can reasonably combine with such training. It will make him a better citizen, a broader-minded man in every way [p. 2].

The emphasis, of course, was placed upon the training of specialists for the army, and properly so. Members of the General Staff have repeatedly pointed out that almost 48 per cent of the personnel of a modern fighting force must consist of trained specialists and technicians in order to secure the necessary mobility and efficiency. Since only 18 per cent of the required number during the world-war could be secured through the draft, one can readily see how necessary it is that a considerable number of enlisted men receive the required training before an emergency arises. Three hours per day, five days per week, and six months per year were consequently set aside at Camp Grant for the vocational training of the soldier-student.

Real professional proficiency in any calling, however, is practically impossible when the majority of men available for training find themselves unable to compete successfully with the average sixth-grade pupil in the mastery of the three R's. To correct this deficiency, two hours per day were set aside to develop the required mathematical skill of the student and to improve his command of the English language.

To develop arrested mentality was the principal aim and purpose of the basic course in citizenship. All materials and

methods employed were determined by a staff of specialists with that object in mind and tested day after day in classroom work during two school terms. Effort and attention were concentrated upon that as the main object, because experience in the army and in civil life has demonstrated that an alert, plastic, and systematic mind, stimulated by its environment and directed by a creative impulse, will of its own accord search for such additional information and acquire such additional skill as circumstances demand. Dull and unorganized minds, on the other hand, not only lack the necessary interest and ambition to supplement their fund of knowledge, but scarcely ever know what to do with such knowledge and skill as they possess.

The course of instruction offered students and instructors an opportunity to study the origin and evolution of democratic ideals and institutions as well as the extension of the sphere of their influence from the Near East to the Far West. The subject-matter of the course is divided into one hundred and twenty problems, one problem for each day of instruction, including periodical reviews. The course proceeds in spiral form from simple to more and more complex and modern cultural levels. Each cultural level is studied in its social, economic, political, historical, and geographical aspects. None of the various aspects, however, was ever presented in the abstract or as a problem of a single branch of the social sciences. In other words, the basic course in citizenship is a synthetic course, placing due emphasis upon the functional side of human experience, upon the unity and interdependence of all phenomena of the social organism. Interwoven with and traceable throughout the entire scheme are recurrent themes around which the daily topics are grouped, representing such problems as the relation between production and consumption, industrial development and democracy, education and democracy, public opinion and democracy, natural resources and national progress, the necessity for and function of social control, evolution and revolution, and social interdependence and social responsibility. This arrangement made the course elastic and had the advantage of frequent repetition. Consequently the instructor was not forced to be exhaustive or final in his treatment of the daily topics.

In instruction, both the problem method and the question method were employed. The daily problem, provided for by the problem or case method, was introduced to the class in the form of a perplexity in order to arouse the student's interest and challenge his attention. The question method, on the other hand, demanded continuous discussion and co-operation between students and instructor. By referring from the problem at hand to similar perplexities of the present day, the students were invited to draw from their own varied experiences elements for comparison, which in turn helped them to organize their past experience for future use. Thus they gradually discovered that a great deal of supposedly "dead memory" had real functional value. Throughout the entire course processes rather than isolated and detached incidents of human experience were emphasized. Such methods and principles, if persistently put into operation, are bound to change the mental make-up of the student. They are bound to develop reflective thinking, the spirit of critical inquiry, at least a fair analytical ability, and some power of proper classification. Moreover, whenever possible, the material in use during the English hour was intimately related to the problem of the course in citizenship and reinforced the discussion of the day. It is self-evident that, in consequence of such procedure, a great deal of informational knowledge was acquired by the students.

The departure from conventional methods of administration and classification of the student body was even more marked. Intelligence levels, and not conventional school grades, served as a basis for classification. These intelligence levels were determined through a series of intelligence and mechanical-interest tests in use in the army during the war and revised by the department of testing and grading of the army schools. Irrespective of previous educational experience, the men were placed in eight homogeneous groups. Through the medium of progress tests, the results of instruction were measured objectively. As soon as it was found that a man had outgrown his group, or that he could not keep up with his group, the necessary adjustment was made. Thus homogeneous groups were maintained throughout the school year. Such frequent adjustment was possible because, as far as the basic

course in citizenship was concerned, the topics for discussion and the methods employed were identically the same for all eight groups. The course proved to be elastic enough to permit the adjustment which each level of intelligence required.

Of course, the entire scheme raised problems and difficulties of its own, chief among them being the difficulty of getting an efficient instructing staff. Instructors of more than average ability are necessary to make success a certainty. It is necessary that the instructor be thoroughly familiar with the principal problems and movements of the day and the important literature of almost all of the social sciences; he must also be a dialectician.

In order to preserve a certain uniformity of instruction, from the standpoint of emphasis as well as interpretation, daily conferences were held in which one of the instructors presented the next day's problem adapted to the intelligence level and to the peculiar needs of the group. This presentation was then discussed and supplemented by additional references and suggestions. A group of essays, for which the various problems under discussion furnished the topics, served as a check and stimulus for both instructors and students.

RESULTS

In spite of all of the obstacles which had to be overcome, the results evidently justified the efforts. The tests used to measure the progress of the student body were modifications and adaptations of such standard tests as Woody's arithmetic scale, Monroe's algebra test, Charter's language and grammar tests, and Buckingham's Extension of the Ayres Spelling Scale. Some tests had to be developed especially for the purpose since no standard tests were available. Wherever practical, the results obtained have been translated into the equivalent public-school grades for the sake of better comparison.

Table II compares the status of the students relative to their spelling ability, the extent of their vocabulary, their correct use of the English language and grammar, and the range of their mathematical skill at the opening of the school with that at the close of the school year.

Even a casual glance at the figures of Table II cannot fail to reveal a decided shift in the ability of the students by the end of the school term, in spite of a great deal of interference with their regular attendance on account of military duties. This becomes even more obvious when we compare the percentage of men with less than sixth-grade ability and those with more than eighth-grade ability in the four disciplines mentioned. This comparison is shown in Tables III and IV, which should be read as follows: at the beginning of the school 66.3 per cent of the men enrolled were

TABLE II
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF 661 MEN ON THE BASIS OF SCHOOL STANDING IN
THE SEVERAL SUBJECTS AT THE BEGINNING AND AT THE END OF THE GENERAL
EDUCATION COURSE

PUBLIC-SCHOOL GRADE	SPELLING		VOCABULARY		LANGUAGE		MATHEMATICS	
	First Test	Last Test	First Test	Last Test	First Test	Last Test	First Test	Last Test
II.....	15.4	1.8	1.8	0.4	7.0	10.5
III.....	10.6	4.9	7.1	0.9	4.8	1.3	12.6	1.5
IV.....	11.8	4.5	7.9	3.1	7.7	3.7	21.5	4.7
V.....	11.4	9.0	12.0	2.7	14.6	6.7	21.6	14.0
VI.....	17.1	14.6	13.8	7.1	20.2	8.9	28.4	21.2
VII.....	12.0	14.4	27.5	10.8	23.8	14.1	4.5	20.2
VIII.....	14.3	18.2	15.1	21.8	17.3	24.0	0.5	20.1
IX.....	6.1	14.4	12.7	16.1	3.8	20.6	10.2
X.....	1.2	10.1	1.8	17.2	0.5	11.4	8.0
XI.....	6.4	19.1	7.5
XII.....	1.3	0.7	1.5

rated as of less than sixth-grade ability in spelling; 7.3 per cent were rated as of better than eighth-grade ability in this subject.

The number of public-school grades by which the men improved their ability in the specified fundamentals during their attendance at the army school is indicated in Figure 1. Of course, it was to be expected that a certain percentage of men would make little or no progress. The number of those who made no progress, however, is very small, there being only 9.4 per cent for the total group in spelling, 3.4 per cent of the total group in vocabulary, 2.4 per cent of the total group in the correct use of the English language and grammar, and 7.9 per cent of the total group in mathematics. For the group as a whole, marked improvement is shown. For instance,

23.4 per cent of the total number of men enrolled have one and one-half school grades' progress to their credit in the correct use of language and grammar; 18.5 per cent show the same amount of improvement in spelling, 17.3 per cent the same in vocabulary, while 19.8 per cent in language, 13.2 per cent in spelling, and 19.2 per cent in vocabulary advanced two school grades. It should be noted that the testing and grading were done by representatives of the testing and grading department, and not by the instructors.

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MEN OF LESS THAN SIXTH-GRADE
ABILITY

Subject	At the Beginning of the School	At the Close of the School
Spelling.....	66.3	34.8
Vocabulary.....	42.5	14.2
Language.....	54.3	20.6
Mathematics.....	94.6	41.4

TABLE IV

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF MEN BETTER THAN
EIGHTH-GRADE ABILITY

Subject	At the Beginning of the School	At the Close of the School
Spelling.....	7.3	32.2
Vocabulary.....	14.5	53.0
Language.....	4.3	41.0
Mathematics.....	18.2

It was of importance to know whether the daily class discussions contributed in some definite manner to the informational fund of the student and whether his power to grasp and retain a number of ideas in consequence of a discussion had been improved. In order to obtain the desired information, essays were assigned by the director of the school, each topic representing a definite group of class problems which had been discussed. Among the topics were "Democracy in Its Relation to Industrial Development," "Industrial Progress in Its Relation to Education," "The Development

and Function of Public Opinion," "Democracy and Education," and "Who Is an American?" The topics were discussed in the classroom and the essays outlined the day after the assignment had been given to the instructing staff. The essays were written the following day without any further comment and were graded according to the number of ideas which they contained and the form

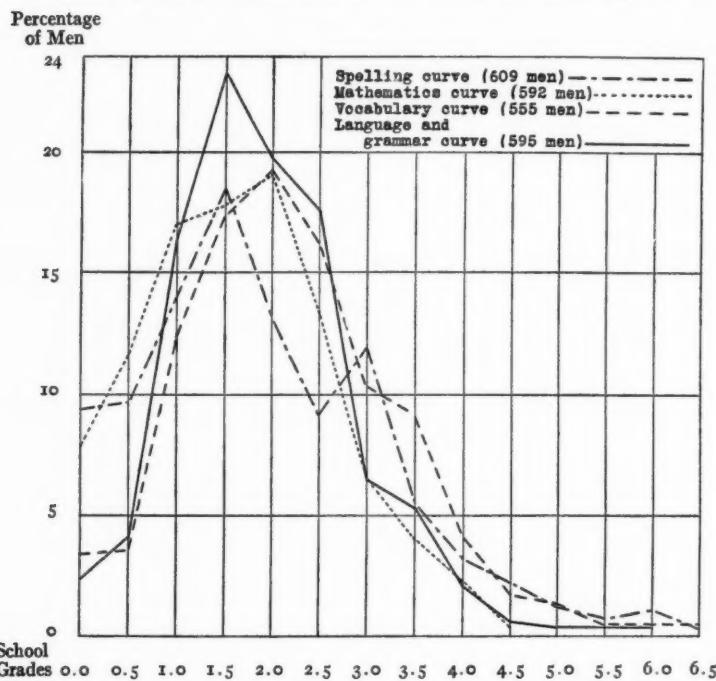


FIG. 1.—Percentage distribution, on the basis of the number of school grades advanced, of men enrolled in specified branches of the general education course.

in which these ideas were presented. The scores of the last essay were then compared with the scores of the previous products of the same kind. The results are shown in Table V under the heading "Content or Substance Tests." It is not assumed that these figures, as well as those of the judgment tests, measure absolutely what they are intended to measure. The scores representing idea-

values, for example, are somewhat arbitrary. However, in the absence of anything better, they render a service in so far as they permit a comparison which reveals a decided increase in the power of attention as well as the power to grasp, retain, and express ideas of a rather involved and complex character.

In other words, while 38.3 per cent of the total number of men made a score of 50 or less in their first essays, only 6.6 per cent of the same men made a score of 50 or less in their last essays. Again, whereas, only 27.6 per cent of the total number made a score of more than 70 in the first attempt, 79.4 per cent of the same men

TABLE V

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES OF 661 MEN ON CONTENT AND JUDGMENT TESTS AT THE BEGINNING AND AT THE END OF THE GENERAL-EDUCATION COURSE

IDEA-VALUES	CONTENT OR SUBSTANCE TESTS		JUDGMENT TESTS		
	FIRST ESSAY	LAST ESSAY	PERCENTAGE OF CORRECT CHOICES	TEST A	TEST B
10.....	1.8	.2	22.....	3.3
20.....	6.5	1.0	32.....	10.4	4.0
30.....	4.9	2.0	42.....	21.7	6.4
40.....	8.8	1.0	52.....	24.5	14.5
50.....	16.3	2.4	62.....	23.2	19.9
60.....	15.8	5.2	72.....	8.5	25.7
70.....	18.1	8.3	82.....	7.0	19.5
80.....	22.7	25.8	92.....	1.2	9.9
90.....	4.9	40.1			
100.....	13.5			

made a score of more than 70 in their last essays. In comparing the score of the last essay of each student with the records of his previous essays it was found that the following individual progress was in evidence: 44.3 per cent of the men improved their first score by 15 per cent or less; 22.2 per cent by 15 to 25 per cent; 28.1 per cent by 25 to 50 per cent; and 5 per cent by 50 to 75 per cent.

Not less gratifying and instructive are the results of a group of tests which attempted to measure progress in the development of social attitudes and personal judgment, a special objective of the department of general education. Here again, no standardized

tests were available which might serve as a criterion, and no comparison with public-school grades was possible. After a great deal of experimenting, Judgment Tests A and B were developed and adopted for that purpose. Both tests consist of ten questions of civic importance, each question being accompanied by a number of possible answers. From these possible answers, the student was directed to make a first and a second choice in response to each question. The problems of the basic course in citizenship furnished the material for the questions. It was assumed that each choice would represent not only a judgment but also a social attitude. Test A was given during the second week of instruction, and Test B during the last week of the school term. The following example will suffice to indicate the character of the tests.

PROBLEM R OF JUDGMENT TEST B

Question: What is the real function of liberty in a democracy?

Answers: 1. To guarantee the right to do exactly as one pleases.

2. To guarantee the right to go anywhere one wishes.

3. It offers an opportunity to do whatever one pleases so long as he does not prevent anyone else from doing the same.

4. It offers an opportunity to do whatever one pleases so long as he does not interfere with the opportunity of others to enjoy equal comfort, peace, health, and happiness.

5. It offers an opportunity to do whatever one pleases so long as nobody objects.

6. It offers an opportunity for complete self-development in order to render the best service to society and get the most out of life.

7. It gives a man the right to eat without working, to consume without producing, if he so chooses, or can afford to do so.

The data of Table V permit comparison of the results of these tests. From these records it is seen that although 35.4 per cent of all men had not more than 42 per cent of correct choices to their credit as a result of Test A, at the end of the school term only 10.4 per cent of the same group of men scored below 42 per cent; and whereas only 16.7 per cent of the men had 72 per cent or more correct answers to their credit in Test A, at the end of the year 53.5 per cent of the men made a score of 72 per cent and more; 9.9 per cent of the 53.5 per cent scored as high as 92 per cent.

By comparing the results of Test A with the results of Test B, it was found that 37.4 per cent of the total number of men improved their first scores up to 16 per cent; furthermore, 16.8 per cent of the total registered an improvement up to 24 per cent; 21.9 per cent improved their first scores up to 48 per cent; and 3 per cent even as high as 68 per cent. However, 20.9 per cent of all men, on account of indifference or lack of native ability, or in consequence of high records previously obtained, recorded no improvement over the first percentage of correct choices.

These results and all other results obtained during the school year 1920-21 assume added value if one takes into consideration the fact that military duties after school hours did not leave time for home study or any work outside the classrooms, and that, with the exception of the daily problem sheets which furnished supplementary reading for the discussions, no textbooks were in use.

In compliance with the provisions of the new appropriation bill for the fiscal year 1921-22, the War Department is obliged to eliminate practically all professionally trained instructing and supervising personnel. For the present at least, all instruction is to be carried on by enlisted men, men whose educational history, mental make-up, and professional skill cannot be any better than that analyzed in the first part of this article. A comparatively expensive, but unusually successful experiment, full of promise and social significance for the nation and for the army, from the stand-point of efficiency and democratization, is in danger of being reduced to a mere farce after it has proved its worth.

However, whatever Congress or the War Department may do, the Camp Grant experiment has undoubtedly demonstrated that courses such as the basic course in citizenship and similar methods in operation under more advantageous conditions than those which the army could provide, are bound to produce even more striking results. If introduced into our high schools and colleges, such courses and methods would prove to be intensely stimulating and produce, what our schools are frequently accused of not producing, a new social consciousness, coupled with civic responsibility and reflective types of mind.

A HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPAL'S SELF-RATING CARD

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During the past few years we have developed as educational tools various tests, score cards, and standards. We have building score cards, pupils' intelligence tests, tests of the fundamental subjects, textbook score cards, janitor score cards, teachers' score cards, etc. We measure, score, classify, and compare. Everything, including equipment, supplies, the pupils, their work, and the teachers, has been measured and evaluated.

So far as the writer knows, no one has devised a rating system for either the high-school principal or the superintendent. The rating card here presented is not offered as a scientific piece of work. It is the opinion of but one individual based upon some thought and study. It is hoped that any principal who may read this article will be stimulated to do some self-questioning. The business man takes an annual inventory of his business to determine his success during the year and that he may know his position in beginning the work of the new year. As individuals, as school administrators, it is equally important that we survey ourselves and our work from time to time. One of the commonest of human failings is the tendency to develop a narrowing field of interests and work. Our absorption in one undertaking causes us to neglect others. As executives, we are constantly in need of analyzing our job and ourselves as a means of keeping our vision sufficiently broad and of redirecting our attention to phases of our work which have a tendency to become obscured.

This rating card may also interest those who are not acquainted with, or have not considered, the variety of work and interests or the complexity of the problems of the high-school principal's field of endeavor. It is hoped that the outline will emphasize the absolute need of well-trained, broad-visioned school executives in order that the necessary administrative problems in the training

of teachers and in the development of the modern high school to meet the needs of our changing social and industrial life may be successfully undertaken.

In the outline that follows, substitutions, additions, or omissions may be made as the nature of the reader's position and work necessitates. Under I (3 and 4) the project method might be substituted if the need is being met in that way. Under VI a larger or a smaller number of extra-curricula activities might be mentioned. The question is, are there as many activities offered as can be taken care of efficiently and as are desired by the students?

There is nothing arbitrary about the items included. Other books and magazines may be better than those given; if so, they should be included. The question is, Does one read professional books and magazines? Has one read the best things written in his field of work?

I. Have you given attention to the following through study with your teachers?

1. Improving study habits of students
2. Providing for some method of supervised study
3. Socializing the methods of the classroom
4. Socialization of the subject-matter of the curriculum
5. Developing thinking rather than memory in class discussion
6. A more scientific marking system
7. Improving students' examinations
8. Working on course of study
9. Student advisers or helpers

II. Are you providing for the following in your curriculum?

1. Ethical and moral training
2. Health training
3. Vocational guidance
4. Social development
5. Work adapted to intellectual ability of pupils through
 - a) Classification plans
 - b) Provision in course of study for minimum requirements for slow pupils and enriched curriculum for the accelerates

III. Have you given group intelligence tests to all pupils?

1. Have you used the results in
 - a) Classifying students in English, mathematics, science, social sciences, modern languages
 - b) Guiding pupils in the selection of studies
 - c) Vocational guidance

IV. Have you given standard educational tests?

1. Have you used the results in
 - a) Measuring classroom instruction
 - b) Improving classroom instruction
 - c) Meeting individual needs

V. Have physical examinations been given to all students?

1. Have the defects noted received recognition and have attempts been made to correct them through the
 - a) School nurse or school physician
 - b) Physical-training department

VI. Are you providing extra-curricula activities for as many pupils as possible?

1. Is it sufficiently varied to meet the needs and interests of all children?
 - a) Athletics
 - b) Music
 - c) Literary
 - (1) Debate
 - (2) Declamation
 - (3) Societies
 - (4) Dramatics
 - d) Art
 - e) Science
 - f) Commercial
 - g) School paper
 - h) Annual
 - i) Social activities

VII. Do you have the following information regarding each student?

1. Is this information used to guide the student and to adapt the work of the school to his needs?
 - a) Chronological age
 - b) Mental age
 - c) Social development
 - d) Previous educational training
 - e) Scholarship in
 - (1) Elementary school
 - (2) Junior high school
 - (3) High school
 - f) Parents
 - (1) Nationality
 - (2) Occupation
 - (3) Culture
 - (4) Home conditions in general
 - g) Physical condition

- h)* Likes and dislikes as to work and play
- i)* High-school record in
 - (1) Classroom
 - (2) Extra-curricula activities
- j)* Does student work outside of school hours
 - (1) At home
 - (2) In store
 - (3) In office
- k)* To what extent has the student shown
 - (1) Perseverance
 - (2) Initiative
 - (3) Dependability
 - (4) Honesty
 - (5) Leadership
 - (6) Co-operation
- l)* Employment record of student for a number of years after leaving school

VIII. Have you a definite educational ideal?

- 1. Is your ideal a changing one?
- 2. Are you a student of social and economic conditions with the idea of better knowing life today in order that you may better make your school meet the needs for worthy living?

IX. Are you developing a democratic type of school supervision that

- 1. Recognizes the teachers' opinions and participation in school policies
- 2. Recognizes the teachers in curricula-making
- 3. Places responsibility upon the teachers
- 4. Places responsibility upon the students in the
 - a)* Classroom
 - b)* General conduct and discipline of school
 - c)* Extra-curricula activities

X. Are you developing a professional spirit in your teachers through

- 1. The study of educational problems
- 2. Professional reading
- 3. Summer-school work
- 4. Membership in teachers' professional organizations
- 5. Attendance at and participation in educational meetings

XI. Do you touch the life of the community through

- 1. Church
- 2. Lodges
- 3. Clubs
 - a)* Study
 - b)* Commercial
 - c)* Social

4. Social gatherings
5. Charity organizations

XII. Are you interesting the public in your school through

1. Mothers' and fathers' meetings
2. School exhibits
3. Visiting days
4. Newspaper publicity
5. Other publicity

XIII. Have you visited other high schools to see what they are doing?

XIV. Have you attended a summer school in the past five years?

XV. Have you had professional training as a school executive?

XVI. Do you participate in the following:

1. Making of annual budget
2. Superintendent's annual report
3. Selection of textbooks
4. Selection of teachers

XVII. Can you name three of the leading textbooks in each subject offered in your high school?

XVIII. 1. Do you know how much it costs to run your high school each year?
2. Do you know what the unit costs are
a) For instruction
b) For each subject
c) In other schools

XIX. How many of the following professional books have you read?

1. Johnson, *The Modern High School*
2. Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*
3. Snedden, *Problems of Secondary Education*
4. Monroe, *Principles of Secondary Education*
5. Parker, *Methods of Teaching in High Schools*
6. Judd, *Psychology of High-School Subjects*
7. Colvin, *An Introduction to High-School Teaching*
8. Bagley, *The Educative Process*
9. Briggs, *The Junior High School*

XX. How many of the following professional magazines do you read?

1. *School Review*
2. *Teachers College Record*
3. *Educational Administration and Supervision*
4. *American School Board Journal*
5. *Journal of Educational Research*

XXI. Do you read at least one of the following?

1. *Atlantic Monthly*
2. *Survey*

3. *Independent*
4. *Literary Digest*
5. *Nation*
6. *World's Work*
7. *Review of Reviews*

XXII. Do you read a daily newspaper?

XXIII. Have you read a book published in the last twelve years on each of the following subjects?

1. Educational psychology
2. Sociology
3. Educational sociology
4. Economics
5. Project method
6. Socialized recitation
7. Supervised study
8. Vocational education
9. Vocational guidance
10. Home training
11. Commercial training
12. Physical training in the schools
13. Moral education
14. Teaching of science
15. Teaching of English
16. Teaching of mathematics
17. Teaching of history and social science

SECONDARY INSTRUCTION IN ROMANCE LANGUAGES

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French and Spanish are not strangers in American education. Benjamin Franklin in 1743 recommended French as a preparatory study for law and medicine, and he indorsed French, Spanish, and German for commercial purposes. Our colonial neighbors emphasized the value of French and Spanish in our coastwise trade in the eighteenth century. But in the nineteenth century German swung past its competitors in the modern-language field. When the war came on, German was the strongest in all sections of the country. French, studied by twice as many students in the North Atlantic states as in all the rest of the country, was a poor second. Spanish was studied in 1915 by only 35,000 high-school students, half of whom were in the western section of the country.

With the entrance of America into the world-war, German became practically extinct in our high schools. Wherever it was not legally abolished, the students boycotted it. The usual course was to introduce either French or Spanish to satisfy linguistic requirements. Although boards of education could readily be persuaded to do this, it was anything but a simple problem to prepare an army of teachers as instructors in these languages. In the readjustment, the prestige of modern-language instruction suffered severely. Teachers actually attempted a Romance language with no more preparation than that afforded by a six weeks' course. From this confusion we are recovering, and we should soon be in a position to require a preparation on the part of teachers of French and Spanish which shall be comparable to that possessed by teachers of other high-school subjects.

French, Spanish, Portuguese, Russian, Italian, and German now clamor for recognition in our high-school curricula. How shall we make our choice? What are the criteria for determining the importance of modern languages in general? Among the considerations that have been suggested are the following:

1. The number of people speaking the language. It is estimated that French is spoken by 40,000,000; Spanish, by 55,000,000; Russian, in three dialects, by 115,000,000; English, by over 150,000,000, in Australasia, Canada, South Africa, the British Isles, and the United States; Chinese, by over 400,000,000.

2. The territorial possessions and the distribution of the users of a language. English is easily first from this point of view, Russian next, Spanish third, and French fourth.

3. The official recognition of the language by governments. English is first on this score, the population of the British Empire alone being equal to that of China. Russian comes third, Spanish fourth, and French fifth.

4. The dynamic quality of the people speaking the language. Half the world's commerce is carried on by English-speaking countries, and these countries contain one-half of the railroads and one-half of the newspapers on the globe. In 1920 it was stated that 85 per cent of the world's automobiles were manufactured in the United States. People speak of learning other modern languages to travel in Europe, but one can go nearly anywhere speaking only English; there is always within reach someone who can understand. The French are equally dynamic, and the tremendous virility they exhibited in the war leads us to expect them to manifest marvelous powers of recuperation. While Spain is anything but dynamic, the South American republics number some very progressive and dynamic nations. Italy displays many of the qualities of France, but the low state of popular education and general intelligence in that country will tend to offset Italian enthusiasm and national ambition. Of the oriental nations, Japan alone is aggressive.

5. The importance of the language as a vehicle of the world's thought. English and French and German to some extent have profited from the fact that their prestige attracted the geniuses of other languages to use these tongues as vehicles for their thought in order that they might enjoy a larger hearing. Spanish has rarely been so employed, Russian or Chinese perhaps never. After the passing of Latin as the universal language of the educated classes, French enjoyed the largest prestige among the better class. In

fact, if there has been a universal language for the past three centuries, it has been French. In later years French has lost much of this advantage, but it still is very generally the language of diplomacy. Discussions at the recent Treaty of Paris were conducted in both French and English, and the same is true of the recent armament conference. At the Genevan Conference of the League of Nations, English, French, and Spanish were recognized as official languages. The Nobel prizes for 1901-13, aside from those for the promotion of peace, went to residents of countries as follows:

	Physics, Chemistry, and Medicine	Litera- ture
Germany.....	14	4
France.....	11	2
England and America.....	7	1
Italy.....	1	1
Spain.....	1	1
Russia.....	1	0

The other prize winners were scattered among several minor nations.

From the last of the foregoing criteria we can understand why foreign language is frequently mentioned as an aid in advanced study. Since translations do not keep pace with publications in modern language, men of science in pure fields or the applied field of medicine find a reading knowledge of French and German valuable, if not indispensable. French is almost essential for research in mathematics. Italian stands forth as eminent, if not pre-eminent, in art, music, and certain divisions of sociology, notably criminology. German possibly leads for the purposes of the psychologist.

Looking at the problem from the standpoint of cultural values, acquaintance with the history, literature, and life of a nation may be secured from translations, but these are not always accessible at once, and sometimes not at all. The frequent occurrence of French words and phrases in literature makes some French of service in all general reading. The Great War has increased this mingling of French with English. Likewise, Spanish terms have been growing more numerous in the spoken and written English of this country since the Spanish-American War. German and French are the

languages of great literatures as well as of science; Spanish, relatively speaking, is the language of neither, though the development of South America may in time change this.

The advantages of French over Spanish for scientific, literary, and general conventional purposes may be granted, but there are many who believe the scales to be more than reversed by the advantage of Spanish for commercial purposes. The vast expansion of the South American continent in industry, trade, and population in the last twenty years, and its enormous capacity for further growth in these respects have been the occasion of much concern and have led to the demand that we equip ourselves by proper language training to grasp these opportunities for new markets.

There is very grave danger that we may overemphasize the commercial argument. In the first place, if an oral command of the Spanish were necessary, it would be impossible to give it in our high schools. The simple reason is that the student does not continue his study long enough to become proficient in speaking the language.

Let it be conceded that salesmen or professional men in our own country occasionally find it desirable to speak and understand French, Spanish, or German. There are times when the same might be said of Russian, Polish, Italian, and several other modern languages. How generally are such situations to be met? And how closely can one predict while in the high school how many and which of these languages he will later wish he had acquired? Can he tell whether he is likely to be a consular agent in Japan, a medical missionary in China, or a commercial salesman in Peru? A frank reply to these questions casts the greatest uncertainty over the whole matter. Moreover, so far as commercial pursuits and professional practice in this country are concerned, it is the business of immigrants to speak our language rather than our business to speak theirs. The school as a leveler of social barriers and a developer of nationality must take that view, even though it might be worth a few dollars to some physician to speak German or Belgian.

Now let us look critically at the facts in the South American situation. First, let it be noted that Brazil, apparently the most

promising commercial field in South America, constituting nearly half the area and including 45 per cent of the population of that continent, uses the Portuguese language officially. While a number of Brazilians speak Spanish, a recent article in the *Independent* remarks that an advertisement in Spanish would be as "distasteful" and as "unintelligible" to the people of Brazil as one in English. Nevertheless, Portuguese is not mentioned once in our press where Spanish is mentioned a hundred times; and for every student of Portuguese in this country there are surely more than a hundred seeking to acquire Spanish. To be consistent, on commercial grounds, we must display as much ardor for the study of Portuguese as for the study of Spanish.

Let us consider next the factor of distance. The truth is that we are a long distance from South America and can reasonably hope for nothing that remotely approaches commercial monopoly. Since less than one-tenth of the area of South America drains into the Pacific and less than one-sixth of her population inhabits the western slope, we must make our comparisons principally on the basis of her eastern front. The lines joining Boston, Brest, and Pernambuco form an isosceles triangle, with the base (Boston-Brest) a third shorter than the legs. Hence Europe has as good cause to study Spanish for commercial reasons as the United States, and we should be as anxious about Russian, French, German, and Italian to the near east of us as we are about Spanish to the almost equally distant south.

What is the practice of the keen commercial nations of Europe in respect to the study of Spanish? Our latest information does not show German higher schools teaching Spanish. French secondary schools do not offer it except in a few of the departments adjacent to the Spanish border. The report of an English commission in 1918 declared that English education must pay more attention to French, German, Italian, and Russian, but did not even mention Spanish or Portuguese. Yet when we examine statistics of trade, the United Kingdom and Germany were shown in 1910 to be the heaviest exporters to Argentina and Brazil. If we examine the trade current in the opposite direction, we find that in 1910 Argentina and Brazil were exporting most heavily to

German- and English-speaking peoples, but French was the required language in their high schools. The argument from example is conclusively against adding a foreign language to our curriculum for its supposed commercial value. Only adjacent territories, crossed constantly in travel and trade, account for the modern-language programs of European nations.

Had the advocates of foreign-language study for commercial purposes analyzed the trade relations of our country, they might have discovered that a great trade can grow up between two nations with little mingling of their people or their languages. For example, how many Brazilians must know English in order to get us to buy their coffee? If we follow the process of merchandising from the ignorant native laborers harvesting the crop to the South Dakotan enjoying its potation at the breakfast table, we shall find that the speaker of one language meets necessarily the speaker of another at one point only, namely, where the great wholesaler of the Brazilian seaport, Santos, deals with the great wholesaler of New York. We shall not make the mistake of sending a crowd of Yankees to South America to sell our products. If they did not betray their nationality otherwise, their accent would mark them as foreigners. And an intelligent business man will not handicap his product by presenting it to people through foreigners. He will present it to them through native salesmen.

While personal preferences for French, Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese as subjects of instruction in our high schools may vary, it is less a matter of concern which we offer than how we offer it. Let us first of all stress a properly equipped teaching force. Perfect pronunciation and conversational knowledge of the language are secondary to some enthusiasm for the language as a means of information, some knowledge of the customs and institutions of the people who use it, familiarity with their literature, and accurate ability in translation. Less than two years of college training for the teacher can never insure this, and three is the safer minimum. With teachers so trained, foreign language will have a function in familiarizing us with literature and history, and it will supply in a measure those advantages of travel which very few can ever enjoy.

In the second place, let us insist upon more continuity in the foreign-language courses. The accrediting standards of at least one state permit not less than two years of a foreign language to be counted toward graduation. This is a salutary provision. The desire of students in our liberal curricula of the present is to pick around and accumulate a sort of "lunch-counter" education. Random discussions with college students are strengthening the impression that even two years of a foreign language does not leave a lasting impression. If a school cannot offer at least two units of a Romance language, that language should be left out altogether.

Our local aims in Romance-language instruction must be very general, because we are so far removed from the people whose language we study. That does not by any means destroy, though it may lessen somewhat, the value of this type of instruction in the high schools of much of the North Central territory. Let us emphasize most in the study of French and Spanish those aspects that will strengthen the student's command of English. Opportunities to fix grammatical principles more thoroughly will arise; we should seize them. By calling attention to idioms the teacher can cause the student to appreciate better the constructions that are found in the English. Constant watch should be kept for expressions that have come over into the English. A few cases will be found in which English spelling may be aided by the study of Romance language. The enrichment of vocabulary, to which Latin also appears so well adapted, is something that merits daily attention. Etymology as a formal study in the English is dry, almost deadly, until the student has had a liberal training in foreign language. Finally, and most important of all, let us insist that in the classroom an acceptable form of English expression be substituted for that impossible jargon usually dignified by the name of "translation." The opportunities for training in good English in the foreign-language class are almost unlimited, and yet, because we "want the student to feel the language," we tolerate literal translations so miserable that they are not understood by even the translator.

NEW YORK CITY TEXTILE HIGH SCHOOL

W. H. DOOLEY
Textile High School, New York City

The New York City Board of Education has recently established a unit technical high school to meet the educational needs of the leading industry of the city. Since this is the first unit vocational high school in the country—that is, the first technical high school devoted to a single industry—it may be well first to discuss the importance, aim, and value of such a school.

According to recent census reports and surveys made by the trade organizations, New York City is the largest distributing and selling point of textiles in the world. It is, in addition, the style center of the country and a growing manufacturing center for the highest grades of textiles, such as outer knitted fabrics, garments, upholstery, carpets, dyestuffs, laces, etc. The following are some of the leading enterprises represented: upholstery trades, wholesale and retail dry-goods trades, wholesalers and jobbers of woolen goods, wholesalers and jobbers of cotton goods, converters of cotton goods, dealers in fibers, cotton, wool, linen, silk, etc., knitting and sweater manufacture (over 500 small mills in the city), carpet and rug manufacture, dye manufacture, wholesale dealers of dyes, handicraft textile trades, and clothing trades.

The number of people employed in the textile branches is 694,438 compared with 251,895 engaged in the combined metal trades, and 93,750 engaged in the woodworking trades. The textile trades represent the most important and leading lines in the community and contribute a large part of the money raised by taxation.

Recent investigations show that most of the experts in the textile lines in New York are born and trained in Europe. This does not mean, necessarily, that people of foreign births are more intelligent or better adapted to the work than our men and women, but it does indicate that their education has afforded opportunity for

them to prepare specifically for the textile trades. Can it be that our educators have not seen the possibilities of textile work or have considered it a subject unworthy of study and research? Certain it is that our schools and colleges have not heretofore offered a sufficient number and variety of courses along this line to make it possible for students to specialize in textiles.

The subject of textiles is rich in opportunities for the application of mathematics, chemistry, physics, biology, economics, etc. Every fabric is carefully laid out on paper with definite specifications as to weight, raw material, size of yarn, construction, sizing, dyeing, according to the use for which the fabric is intended. Each specification may be varied to secure draping qualities, power to resist friction, or tensile strength, or to bring the selling price within the reach of a certain class of consumers. Of all the factory industries in this country today, the only one that has successfully applied technical education to the trade is the textile industry.

As has been implied, foreign countries long ago recognized the importance of textiles by attempting to meet the educational needs of that industry. As far back as the clothworkers' guild, opportunity was afforded for training in textiles. Later, well equipped textile schools were established in Europe to train young people in the arts and applied science of textiles. Still later, such schools were established in the United States. Since there are different grades of experts in the textile trades and industries, there must be different types of schools to meet the needs. Generally speaking, textile schools may be of the college grade, secondary- or high-school grade, or intermediate- or trade- (continuation) school grade. Practically all institutions in this country which provide textile education aim to be of collegiate grade, like the Lowell Textile School and the Philadelphia Textile School. They provide a training in the productive branch of textiles for students over eighteen years of age who have had a high-school education or its equivalent. This is due to the fact that at the time textile schools were established, in the early eighties, they were patterned after the technical schools of the time which were of college grade.

Up to the establishment of the New York City Textile High School two years ago, little, if any, effort had been made to supply

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HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY

				Design Course (Costume and Applied Textile)				Chemistry and Dyeing								
	Required or Elective	Weeks	Lessons per Week		Required or Elective	Weeks	Lessons per Week		Required or Elective	Weeks	Lessons per Week			Required or Elective	Weeks	Lessons per Week
artment																
	R	40	4	English.....	R	40	4	English.....	R	40	4			R	40	4
	R	40	5	French.....	E	40	5	Algebra.....	E	40	5			E	40	5
	E	40	5	Civics.....	R	40	5	Biology.....	R	40	5			R	40	5
	R	40	4	Biology.....	E	40	5	Foreign language.....	R	40	5			R	40	5
	R	40	5	Sewing.....	R	40	5	Civics.....	R	40	5			E	40	4
	R	40	5	Science.....	E	40	5	Science.....	E	40	5				40	5
	E	40	5	Mathematics.....	E	40	5									5
artment																
	R	40	4	English.....	R	40	4	English.....	R	40	4			R	40	4
	R	40	5	Geometry.....	E	40	5	Geometry.....	E	40	5			E	40	4
	E	40	5	History.....	E	40	5	Foreign language.....	E	40	5			E	40	5
	E	40	5	Drawing.....	R	40	5	Chemistry.....	R	40	5			R	40	5
	R	40	5	Foreign language.....	R	40	5	History.....	E	40	5			E	40	5
	R	40	5	Household arts.....	E	40	5									
artment																
ling,	R	40	4	English.....	R	40	4	English.....	R	40	4			R	40	4
	R	40	5	Chemistry.....	R	40	5	Physics.....	R	40	5			R	40	5
	R	40	5	Museum work.....	R	40	4	Qualitative and quantitative analysis.....	R	40	10			R	40	10
	R	40	20	General textiles.....	R	40	18	Dyeing.....	R	40	6			R	40	6
	R	40	20	Applied textile design.....	E	40	9	Organic chemistry.....	R	40	6			R	40	6
	R	40	20	Costume illustrating.....	E	40	9	General textiles.....	R	40	5			R	40	5
ing,	R	40	4	Costume cutting.....	E	40	9									
	R	40	8	English.....	R	40	4	English.....	R	40	4			R	40	4
	R	40	5	American history, civics.....	R	40	5	American history, civics.....	R	40	5			R	40	5
	R	40	5	Museum work.....	R	40	4	General textiles.....	R	40	5			R	40	5
	R	40	20	General textiles.....	R	40	5	Quantitative analysis.....	R	40	10			R	40	10
	R	40	20	Applied textile design.....	E	40	18	Organic chemistry.....	R	40	6			R	40	6
Fourth	R	40	5	Costume illustrating.....	E	40	9	Dyeing.....	R	40	6			R	40	6
	R	40	20	Costume cutting.....	E	40	9									

First
Eng
Alg
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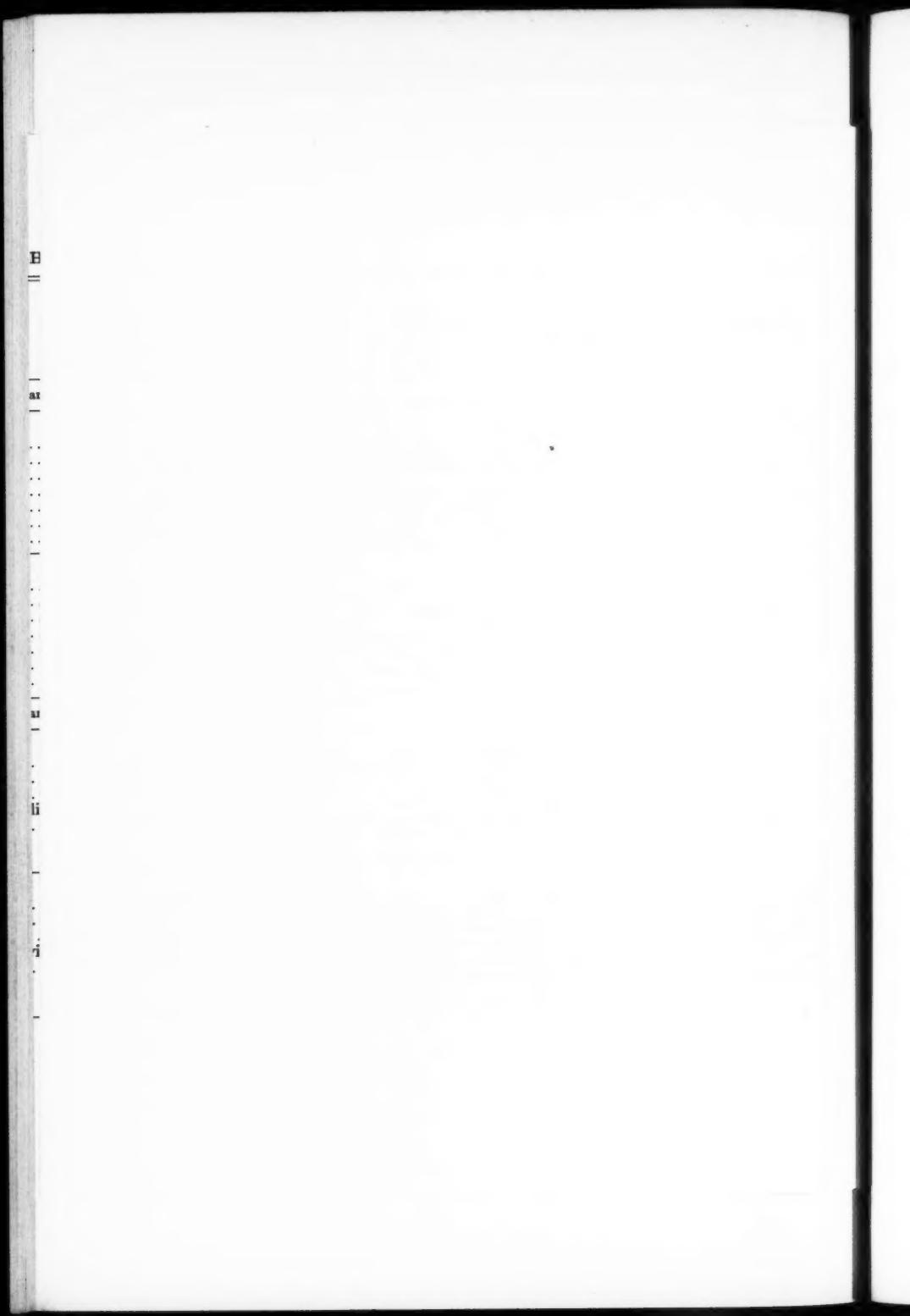
Second
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Geo
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Hist
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Third
Eng
Chem
Phys
Dra
Text

Fourth
Eng
Amer
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dy

COURSES OF STUDY IN THE TEXTILE

General Course in Textiles	Required or Elective			Marketing of Textiles	Required or Elective			Manufacturing and Engineering
	Weeks	Lessons per Week	Weeks		Weeks	Lessons per Week	Weeks	
Preparatory L								
First Year:								
English.....	R	40	4	English.....	R	40	4	English.....
Algebra.....	R	40	5	Algebra, arithmetic.....	R	40	5	Algebra.....
Foreign language.....	R	40	5	Foreign language.....	E	40	5	Foreign language.....
Civics.....	R	40	4	Civics.....	R	40	4	Civics.....
Science.....	E	40	5	Stenography and typewriting.....	R	40	7	Mechanical drawing.....
Biology.....	E	40	5	Bookkeeping.....	R	40	4	Shopwork.....
				Science.....	E	40	5	Science.....
Second Year:								
English.....	R	40	4	English.....	R	40	4	English.....
Geometry.....	R	40	5	Geometry.....	E	40	5	Geometry.....
Foreign language.....	R	40	5	Foreign language.....	E	40	5	Foreign language.....
History.....	R	40	5	History.....	E	40	5	History.....
Science.....	R	40	5	Stenography and typewriting.....	R	40	7	Mechanical drawing.....
				Bookkeeping.....	R	40	4	Shopwork.....
				Science, raw material.....	R	40	5	Physics.....
Vocational D								
Third Year:								
English.....	R	40	4	English.....	R	40	4	English.....
Chemistry.....	R	40	5	Chemistry.....	R	40	5	Chemistry.....
Physics.....	R	40	5	Physics.....	R	40	5	Physics (advanced)...
Drawing, design.....	E	40	5	Economics.....	R	40	5	Textile subjects (c...
Textile subjects.....	R	40	16	Textile subjects (carding, spinning, weaving, cloth analysis).....	R	40	16	spinning, weaving)...
Fourth Year:								
English.....	R	40	4	English.....	R	40	4	English.....
American history, civics.....	R	40	5	American history, civics.....	R	40	5	American history, civic
Drawing, design.....	E	40	5	Salesmanship.....	R	40	5	Advanced mathematics
Cost accounting.....	E	40	5	Period decoration.....	R	40	5	Textile subjects (we...
Textile subjects (weaving, dyeing, finishing).....	R	40	16	Textile subjects (weaving, dyeing, finishing).....	R	40	16	dyeing, finishing)...



textile education of a secondary grade. It is true that there were high schools of the mechanical trades (machinists, electricians, etc.), but little had been done in the textile trades. The textile trade school offers short unit courses in operating machines. Sometimes short day courses are also offered. The Textile High School was organized by the Board of Education in response to a united demand of the following textile organizations: Silk Association, Upholstery Association, Sweater and Knit Goods Association, Cotton Converters' Association, United Dress Waist League, Federation of Art Societies, chemical and dyestuff trade, and the millinery and retail dry-goods associations, working in harmony with the United Textile Workers of America. In order to encourage the establishment of the school the manufacturers have contributed equipment worth over \$100,000.

The New York City Textile High School is a vocational school of high-school grade; that is, it prepares boys and girls directly for the textile trades, while in age of pupils, length of courses, and preparatory requirements, it corresponds to other high schools. This requires four-year courses following the completion of an eight-year elementary course. Strictly speaking, the school should include pupils fourteen to eighteen years old. In this school the course of study is divided into two parts. 'The first, a two-year preparatory course offering a foundation of academic and technical subjects, aims to develop general and industrial intelligence.¹ The second part is distinctly vocational. Experience shows that textile education taught to those under sixteen years of age is not very effective and that it is better to give all general educational work first and intensive vocational work in the last two years, rather than to distribute the textile work over the four years. The vocational work is divided into courses to meet the needs of the various branches of the textile industry: general textiles, marketing of textiles, textile manufacturing and engineering, textile chemistry and dyeing, costume design, and applied textile design.

¹ In the interest of economy pupils are required to take the first year of the preparatory department in the junior or senior high school and are urged also to take the second-year work in the senior high school. Opportunity is provided for the pupils who graduate from the junior high school to take the second-year preparatory work in the Textile High School.

The general textile course aims to provide a general knowledge of textiles and is adapted to the boy or girl who desires to enter the textile world but has no definite plans as to the specific branch; that is, it is planned for the pupil who desires a broad general training in the practice and theory of cotton, woolen, worsted, silk yarn, and fabric manufacture. Among the subjects considered are weave formation, analysis of fabrics, knitting, warp preparation and weaving, cotton yarn manufacture, woolen and worsted yarn manufacture, silk yarn manufacture, chemistry, dyeing, and finishing.

The marketing of textiles is the most popular course in the school. This is not surprising when one considers that the selling of textiles is the largest commercial enterprise in the city. The distinction of textiles is becoming very exacting. Years ago, people purchased and sold textiles on name, but today, due to competition, there is an ever increasing demand to buy and sell on merit alone. All this means that every purchasing and selling agent must know textiles sufficiently well to bring to their selection fine discriminations in the form of selling points. The purpose of the course in the marketing of textiles is to fit young men and women for responsible positions in the wholesale and retail textile trades, where it is necessary to have a knowledge of the construction of all kinds of textiles as well as a knowledge of period decorations.

The textile manufacturing and engineering course aims to give a training that will prepare young men to enter either the manufacturing or the power department of a textile mill and later rise to responsible positions as overseers, superintendents, etc. This course differs from the general course in textiles by devoting more time to the operating, repairing, and mechanism of weaving, knitting, and finishing machines. In other words, it is intended for those who are interested in the production phase of the industry. The production of textiles depends, not only on the skill of the operators, but also on the speed of the machines and the efficiency of the mechanical devices used in preparing the raw material. Thus, the content of this course is quite different from that of the marketing course where emphasis is placed on the finished fabric,

with only such knowledge of manufacturing as is necessary to understand the defects in fabrics and such "finishes" on fabrics as increase or decrease the value. The manufacturing course does not deal so much with the finished cloth as with the layout of the mill, power, transmission, etc.

Textile chemistry and dyeing gives that theoretical and practical training which should enable young men or women to find employment as assistants in textile and dye laboratories, conditioning and testing houses, and mills.

Costume design offers a thorough training in both the practice and the theory of costume designing. It includes costume sketching, costume draping, costume cutting, pattern cutting and grading, fashion illustrations, and knowledge of dress materials. Pupils completing this course find opportunities as costume designers, costume drapers, graders, and fashion illustrators.

The course in applied textile design covers all branches of woven and printed textile design. In addition to regular designing, students have an opportunity to place their designs on fabrics and to see the possibilities and limitations of the manufacturing operations. This enables them to draw their designs more intelligently. This course prepares people for positions as assistant designers in mills and textile houses.

Three types of instructors are employed—academic, technical, and vocational teachers. The academic teacher is a regular high-school instructor with a sympathetic interest in vocational work. The technical instructor is the instructor of applied sciences, mathematics, and design. He is usually a graduate of a college-grade technical school with some textile experience. The vocational instructor is a practical man or woman with textile experience.

The hours and discipline of the vocational department approach those of business and industry. Pupils attend from nine to four; instructors are on duty until five o'clock.

The school has up-to-date equipment of textile machinery, including dye laboratory, testing laboratory, all varieties of looms and knitting machines, and yarn manufacturing as well as finishing machines.

The only academic subjects in the vocational courses during the last two years are English and American history. Thus, while the school aims to produce efficient workers, it shares with all schools the responsibility of training boys and girls to become useful, intelligent citizens who know how to enjoy their leisure, get joy out of life, and be of sincere service to family, friends, and country.

The importance of physical education is recognized, and time is provided for both physical training and organized athletics. Besides the regular classes, additional opportunity is afforded those students who find relaxation and aesthetic pleasure in music—vocal or instrumental—to attend musical clubs from four to five o'clock. Other clubs, such as engineering, science, and salesmanship, are conducted at the same time.

The Board of Regents of the State of New York has approved the course of study and has recognized the school as a technical school of high-school grade. Regents' diplomas are issued to those who pass the Regents' examinations in English, chemistry or physics, algebra or geometry, and American history. It is possible for pupils of unusual ability to enter a higher technical school or college for advanced work in chemistry, dyeing, or other textile courses, since the higher institutions allow credit for work given in this school.

In connection with the Textile High School, there is conducted an evening textile (trade) school for men and women engaged in the textile business. The following unit courses are offered two evenings a week for thirty weeks: woolen and worsted fabrics, cotton converting, general cotton manufacturing, broad silk, ribbon manufacturing, pile fabrics, plain and dobby weaving and loom-fixing, Jacquard weaving and loom-fixing, textile mathematics and accountancy, fabric analysis, general textiles, operating and repairing knitting machines, textile testing, interior decorating, hand-decorated fabrics, textile chemistry, experimental dyeing, upholstery fabrics, mending knitted fabrics, textile designing, fashion designing, costume design, costume draping, garment design, window draping, textiles for cutting up trade, lace and embroidery design, and textile millwright.

The evening trade classes are conducted somewhat differently from the day classes. The adults who constitute the evening classes work in the textile trades during the day and come to evening school with an intensely practical aim and are unwilling to study systematically the whole subject of textiles as younger pupils in day school might do. Evening classes demand that the teachers lead directly to the specific things they want to know. For example, cotton converters are not interested in the mechanical principles of the loom and do not care to discuss the different methods of finishing cloth which the converters are so anxious to know. Therefore, an evening trade school must offer short definite courses, each meeting some definite educational need of the trade. The instructors are men and women with considerable trade experience.

The students are classified as far as possible according to their trades; for instance, there is a class in broad silk fabrics and another for narrow (ribbon) silk fabrics. The knitting machine operators form one class; and the salesmen of knitted fabrics, another. The first class emphasizes the operation and repair of the machine, while the second brings out selling points of the different knitted fabrics and only such knowledge of the operation of the machines as is necessary to show the difficulties of manufacture which contribute to defects of the fabric.

In some respects these classes resemble quite definitely the organization of the old trade guilds of a few centuries ago. Each guild was formed for social intercourse and mental stimulus. Each trade had its own guild. The daily trade experience of each member became the property of all members. Today workmen have common trade experiences and interests. The evening students, grouped according to their occupations, have an opportunity for interchange of ideas and experiences. The teacher acts as director of the discussions, helping the students to solve their trade problem in terms of the experiences they relate.

Although only two years old, the Textile High School has achieved some measure of success, for it has placed every member of the first graduating class in a responsible position in the textile world. Thus, it justifies its establishment by showing that it is meeting a definite educational need of the community.

THE CLASSICS AS CULTURAL STUDIES

T. VALENTINE PARKER
Binghamton, New York

Let me begin with a confession and an explanation. I am not a teacher by profession. Furthermore, I am not a classical scholar. I have discovered in the course of piloting a youngster through high school that I can read Latin better than I supposed; but then my supposition was pitched low—decidedly. For more ambitious excursions into classical domains I prefer—and need—a “horse.” Threading my way on foot, stepping from construction to clause and from clause to idiom, would be precarious and tedious. While I emerged from classical studies in college without discredit, I never gained any reputation as a linguist. All this would seem to disqualify me from discussing the subject I have chosen. From another point of view, however, the case is quite the contrary. If I may indulge in a paradox, my apparent lack of qualification is my real qualification for what I am attempting. What I mean is this: the usual proponents of classical studies are either teachers who are riding their hobbies or students of so exceptional capacity for linguistic pursuits as to make a fair mastery of Latin and Greek both comparatively easy and immensely enjoyable. If the classics are of general value, that value can best be estimated by the student who is not a classical specialist and who has found the study of language a hard and, at times, distasteful task.

As soon as the compulsory character of the curriculum allowed, I fled from the classics to the joyous freedom of congenial “electives.” But while I breathed deeply and hilariously the air of freedom, I was forced to acknowledge to myself that, entirely apart from any disciplinary values, my pursuit of classical studies had not been without cultural effects. Having a part in a play of Plautus, which was acted by a group of Sophomores, gave me an insight into the humor of the comedies and helped me to visualize the Romans as flesh-and-blood human beings. Illustrated lectures

on Roman architecture and civilization made me somewhat aware of the genius of the people. Lectures upon the Latin language and literature introduced me to some slight acquaintance with structure and literary history. In the ordinary work of the classroom there were matters of interest at times. There were the letters of Cicero and Pliny. Decidedly human they were. An eye-witness' description of the eruption of Vesuvius cannot be read without arousing interest. Especially must I acknowledge that I was captivated with the odes of Horace. Their rhythmic beauty was a delight to the ear. The sentiment, pretty and sometimes very fine, awakened every latent poetic instinct. I even attempted a metrical translation of a favorite ode. I re-read it the other day. Even now it does not seem disgracefully bad. To be brief, when I was graduated from college, Latin had done something worth while for me, although I did not think much about it at the time. I cannot say so much for Greek. I plodded through it only so long as the authorities demanded. The course consisted principally of the drudgery of translation and of "prose."

While my acquaintance in college with the classics produced some appreciation of the ancients and their literature, it was graduate work at the university in history, philosophy, education, and sociology that awakened in me such appreciation of the Greek and Roman contributions to civilization as to convert a mediocre linguistic student into an ardent advocate of classical studies. In this mood I watched the flippant, yet determined, assault upon the classics. It made me think. I sought frankly for the defects in classical teaching. I looked for values. I examined pattern and fabric. In contrast, the loosely woven and luridly attractive theories of certain modern educationists seemed tawdry. I tried to be constructive. Thus there has arisen the attempt to answer the question: How can the classics be taught so as both to conserve their disciplinary value and to promote their cultural influence? I believe I have seen the vision of the possibility of classical instruction, and it is wonderful!

No doubt, taken separately, some or all of the methods which I shall have the boldness to suggest are practiced by certain teachers. But, so far as I can learn, the fatal flaw in the methods of teaching

the classics is that cultural study is generally supplementary to the ordinary work of the classroom when it ought to be pervasive of it.

I suppose when we speak of culture we mean appreciative acquaintance with the best of all nations and of all ages. The achievements of the Greeks and Romans must not only furnish the scenery but supply the very atmosphere for the translation of the classical authors. Even sophomoric attention is arrested when informed that Aristotle's was probably the greatest mind in history. To learn the story of Thales and the development of philosophy, to discover that in some respects the Greeks were farther advanced in democracy than we are, to hear that the average Athenian citizen of the time of Socrates was the intellectual superior of the average American citizen of our day ought to achieve the rescue of the classics from the dusty shelves of a library of antiquities and place them upon the living-room table. When such facts are woven into a connected and interpretative narrative, they ought to give a new perspective in approaching the drudgery of translation and syntax. How many college students have a real understanding of the contributions of the Greeks to civilization in philosophy, politics, art, literature, and even science? Is it for no reason that Homer must be included in any list of the five greatest poets of the world? that a Greek drama was enacted in New York this very winter? that Herodotus is the "father of history"? that the Parthenon still reigns as the queen of beauty? that Hippocrates is "the father of medicine"? that the oath of Hippocrates is still administered to medical students about to be admitted to practice? that Demosthenes is unsurpassed as an orator?

The Romans are almost equally interesting in their way. The Republic of Rome fell long, long ago. But the traditions of its sturdy strength remain like a stump gloriously moss-covered and bearing incontestable evidence to the reality and greatness of the tree which once existed. If one has any imagination, the traditions will enable him to see the reality. So let Livy tell his story to minds prepared to appreciate its meaning. The grandeur of imperial Rome still lingers like the afterglow in the sky. Why may not the tints fall upon the page of the Latin author as the student

reads? Still more definitely it is interesting to see how the qualities of a people are reflected in its literature. For example, let it be shown how the practical character of the Romans is reflected in the concreteness of the Latin language.

While there is no defense of any scheme which would substitute interesting information for hard work, it may be contended that it is possible to relate the hard work to cultural ends. While the teacher of the classics cannot be expected to give a complete course in ancient history along with the linguistic instruction, to be successful he must create for his pupils a conception of the people whose language they are studying and interpret the genius of the people through their literature.

I am convinced also that the average student would be encouraged to exercise more patience in the drudgery of study if he were more keenly aware of the niceties of the language which he is striving to understand. In translating Lysias, for example, I stumbled through the Greek particles with a vague notion that there had once been some reason for their existence, but with the most definite idea that they had become merely nuisances of which the text ought to be cleared for the benefit of modern Freshmen. To this day my ignorance remains. I suppose that the effectiveness of Lysias' orations was in part due to the shades of meaning and emphasis produced by the skilful use of those vexatious little words. Here is a note from a volume by Professor Mahaffy: "To reproduce the alliteration and to render the double meaning of *philein* (*φιλεῖν*) (to love and to kiss) as well as the emphasis of the double superlative, is impossible in English; nor would it be easier to find a shorter and more obvious example of the power of the Greek language."¹ Evidently there are power and subtlety in the Greek language. And it is not impossible for us to understand and appreciate. Every student knows that there are three Greek words meaning "to love." The English word "love" is not the equivalent of these words, for each of them expresses a meaning which cannot be translated into English by a single word. Of the beauty and power of the language the average student is too

¹ John Pentland Mahaffy, *Social Life in Greece*, p. 165. New York: Macmillan Co., 1898.

ignorant. Undergraduate attention may be drowsy, but it can be aroused.

Undoubtedly it must make a teacher wince to hear a beautiful paragraph haltingly rendered into execrable English. Our sympathy to the tired and patient teacher! But in proportion as the teacher can infuse into his pupils the spirit of the author can he hope that there may be pride in translation. Even dull pupils can be encouraged to try to grasp subtleties of meaning and expression and render them effectively in translation. I asked a schoolboy who is studying Cicero under a really good teacher if the students were required to read in the Latin. "A little, once in a while," he replied. "Does your teacher ever read a paragraph of Cicero so that you can get some idea of the oratorical sound of the Latin?" The answer was: "Sometimes she reads a few lines." Apparently this is not with the definite object of allowing the sentences of the speaker to produce such an effect upon the ear. I submit that no student can be expected to appreciate Cicero's orations unless he catches the spirit of them and obtains some idea of the sonorous quality of the Latin and also of the rhetorical effectiveness of the speeches even in English when they are worthily translated.

Here we come upon two essentials for the cultural study of the classics. An adequate sense of the beauty and power of a language cannot be gained apart from the ear. A while ago in the spirit of play I repeated to a boy of eleven or twelve the few lines of the *Iliad* which I had memorized. I was not expecting to hear him say as he did, "That's pretty. I like that. Say it again." We feel as if one spirit brooded over all flowing things, and thus there is a naturalness in our figures when in the rhythm of poetry we say that we hear the booming of the deep-toned ocean or the swish of the waves of a quiet sea or the lilting melody of the brook. Can less be said of the Greek and Latin poets than of the English in this respect? Compare the solemn dirgelike effect of these words of Horace in which he speaks of the indiscriminate visit of Death: "*Pallida mors aequo pulsat pede pauperum tabernas*," etc., and the rollicking music of the familiar ode, "*Lydia, dic, per omnes*." The student's ear must catch the music of the language. In addition to this, can the most fevered imagination suppose that the

translation in class of even the most fluent pupil of a few sentences, while each of his classmates is laboriously struggling with the next sentence in preparation for the possibility that he may be the next victim, will conduce to literary appreciation? Surely it is due the students to have the finest passages read to them as rendered by the greatest translators. Let them hear Pope, Chapman, Browning, and the rest.

It would be a good investment of time to devote a period to the discussion of the question: Why have the Homeric poems lived these millenniums? Why could there not be included in the assigned work of the pupil a formulation of his own explanation of the immortality of these great writers? What is it they have done so well as to secure for themselves so conspicuous a niche in the world's hall of fame? Obviously such discussion must be guided, summarized, and supplemented by the teacher.

There are three—not two—combining elements in the making of a successful teacher. We commonly say that a teacher must know his subject. We cannot allow a superficial pretender to dole out misinformation to his pupils. It is of equal importance—although not always considered so—that the teacher shall be able to impart his knowledge. A granary may be full of provisions, but so long as it is closed it will not furnish food to the people. How often have we known scholars whose minds apparently were bursting with erudition! But they never did burst, nor so much as leak. The third element in successful teaching is more generally ignored. It is this: the power to inspire. There are those who know and can make known what they know. Their explanations are clear. So is a map. But the picture alone inspires. I suppose that the gist of the plea I have been making is for the inspirational. The irrepressible spring finding little grooves and depressions about it will make a channel for its refreshing waters. The inspirational instinct within the teacher must discover the lines of least resistance in the minds about him and bore its way so as to create a channel through which may flow both information and refreshment to his students. To kindle the imagination, to impart enthusiasm, to cultivate appreciation is the labor of privilege open to every teacher of cultural studies.

GENERAL PLAN FOR A COURSE IN ECONOMICS

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During the school year 1920-21 the writer found himself confronted with the task of devising a general plan for a half-year course in economics for a particular high school in a rural community. The writer was tolerably familiar with the people and their activities. The method used was to list the important activities of an economic type and determine the aims and content of the course in terms of this list.

These activities may be considered as of two types: (1) those activities common to all people and (2) those of especial importance in the community considered. These, of course, will overlap, and it may be sufficient to select only those of especial significance in the community considered, because these will inevitably contain many of the activities of the other group.

The community considered is approximately one rural township composing a rural, centralized school district. It contains two small villages and adjoins the limits of a city of 12,000 people. The chief vocation is, of course, agriculture. The following phases are important: breeding of horses and hogs; producing apples and staple grains like wheat, oats, and corn.

The people must provide for the necessities of food, clothing, and shelter. As a governmental unit, they must levy and pay taxes, construct roads, maintain schools, support poor relief and widows' pensions, and pay salaries of various public servants. As an advanced civilized group which seeks protection from disasters they must and do use various forms of insurance—fire, tornado, automobile, and life, the latter being used least. As in most rural communities, the people are seasonal employers of labor and find it difficult to secure this service. This has led to the keeping of a hired man and his family the whole year on some large farms. They purchase various kinds of machinery for use on the farm and

in the home. Almost every home has a telephone for which a fixed monthly rental is paid. Probably two-thirds of the families have an automobile. A few have their own electric light plants. The governmental unit is in debt for roads and for a modern school building. A fair proportion of the young people remain in the community and thus finance their start in life there. Others, who leave the community, often finance their start in life by aid of the home community. Markets are now entering a new stage. Co-operative farmers' organizations are rapidly taking over the handling of grains and feeds and also acting as sales agents for machinery, feeds, and some other articles.

The following economic problems suggest themselves as being important in the experience of these people. All of them suggest the desirability of studying some of the fundamental conceptions of economics, such as consumption, production, exchange, and distribution.

1. Money
2. Labor
3. Thrift
4. Financing the start in life (rent, interest)
5. Financing new projects (interest, bonds)
6. Budget-making
7. Taxation
8. Public improvements
9. The financial support of schools
10. Churches and benevolent enterprises
11. Economic co-operative enterprises (marketing, buying)
12. Insurance
13. Banks
14. Railroad transportation
15. Periods of falling prices

Before proceeding farther in considering the content of the course, it is proper to raise the question, "What are the objectives of such a course?" First, what are the sociological aims? Second, what are the psychological aims? Using Small's classification of human needs (interests), we find that economic interests are common to all. Primarily, then, this study should assist in *satisfying economic needs and contributing to efficiency in satisfying economic needs.*

These needs are judged to be as follows: (1) to be efficient agricultural producers and distributors; (2) to be efficient consumers; (3) to protect the economic resources. The people must work intelligently and efficiently, save consistently, use money judiciously, plan systematically for income and expenditure, keep records, protect themselves by means of insurance, use banks, have an understanding of the nature of periods of inflation and depression, and be able to make some adjustments to such conditions. The young men and women need to understand the value of, and the methods of planning, the "start in life." The use of labor-saving machinery in the house and on the farm should be understood. Occasionally, a new economic project is started; for example, a new farm purchased. The principles and practices of mortgage transactions, loans, and indebtedness should be understood. The farm loan banking system must be understood.

As a member of a group, the citizen will be called upon to vote and pay taxes, to assist in making public improvements, and to contribute to religious and benevolent enterprises. Because of the development of marketing on a co-operative basis, he will find it to advantage to be able to participate intelligently in this community activity. How to secure labor when work requiring additional help is seasonal is a problem for the farmer with the moderate-sized farm. As a citizen of the larger community, he must be intelligent concerning problems of national taxation, railway transportation, etc. As a parent, he must train the child in the proper use of money and help him to choose a suitable vocation. Likewise, the child must be taught to do all sorts of farm work. These are some of the more pressing economic needs, and, hence, we may call them the sociological objectives.

The types of psychological objectives can now be indicated readily. First, such a study should help in securing information concerning economic conditions and the principles involved in solving the problems that arise therefrom. This type of psychological objective will probably be foremost. Second, it is necessary to develop some economic *habits* and *ideals*. Thrift should be both a habit and an ideal. Methods of purchasing are partly habits. Conservation should be an ideal. Third, it is very necessary that

boys and girls have some efficiency in thinking in regard to economic conditions. Whatever else might be possible of attainment, at least these objectives should be striven for: getting information, forming habits and ideals, acquiring skill in thinking in terms of economic situations.

What then shall be the content of such a course? First, information which is obviously related to economic needs. Second, exercises which are real problems in economics for the pupils. Third, some material which will make a strong appeal to easily aroused motives.

The sequence of the content is also a problem to be considered. In recognition of the principle of apperception, it is urged that a practical discussion of the immediate economic problems precede the limited study of economic theory. Second, the material must be so arranged that the increasing complexity is gradual. Third, material must reappear so that review is assured.

The types of teaching methods likely to be serviceable are those directly related to the psychological aims: drill, review, recitation-lesson, problem-solving, supervised study, a limited amount of lecturing (telling, exposition), and a few projects. With the time limit of five hours per week for one semester for high-school students, it will probably be difficult to use many projects; but a few should surely be included.

A SUGGESTED SEQUENCE OF MAJOR TOPICS

I. Production. A study of limited problems involved

1. Meaning
 - a) Explanation
 - b) Illustration
2. Factors involved viewed in light of rural conditions
 - a) Nature
 - b) Labor
 - c) Capital
 - d) Management

Production is suggested as the first major problem for study because it is judged to be the easiest to use from the standpoint of apperception. Rural people use almost all of their wakeful hours in labor designed to be productive.

In connection with the study of production, it will be well to use material concerning the factors of production taken from such a book as *The Principles of Rural Economics* by Carver.¹ For problem work, *Outlines of Economics Developed in a Series of Problems*² by Marshall, Wright, and Field will be a source. However, the teacher will find that the most serviceable problems are those which she can lead the pupils to introduce. The next in value are those which she proposes.

II. Exchange

1. a) Explanation
- b) Illustration
2. Value
3. Money
4. Markets
5. Credits
6. Banks and banking
7. Thrift

The study of exchange is taken up next because the activities involved seem to occupy second place in the economic interests of rural people. In this connection it is necessary to study co-operative marketing and buying, using material from some such writings as Powell's *Cooperation in Agriculture*,³ or other similar writings. In connection with credits, banking, and thrift, the problems of financing the start in life, financing new projects, federal farm loans, and financial depressions are to be studied. Some practical scheme of thrift should be inaugurated at the instance of the pupils, if possible. The same suggestions concerning problems hold here as with the study of production.

III. Distribution of economic products

1. Meaning
- a) Explanation
- b) Illustration
2. Factors sharing in products (goods)
 - a) Rent
 - b) Wages
 - c) Interest
 - d) Profits

¹ Boston: Ginn & Co.

² Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

³ New York: Macmillan Co.

The study of distribution is placed third in the sequence because it is needed to clarify further problems arising in the study of production and exchange. Problem work will be very necessary in this study to establish the attitude of considering all four factors in economic distribution.

IV. Consumption

1. Human wants
 - a) Types
 - b) Cultivated desires
2. Utility and goods
3. Demand
4. Wise and unwise consumption
5. Consumers' leagues

V. Public economic activities

1. Taxation
2. Public improvements
3. Governmental expenditures
4. Governmental control of business and industry

VI. Selected topics or problems for special study

1. The economic status of Bolshevism
2. The economic basis of Socialism
3. Conservation of nation's resources
4. Study of problems involved in railways
5. Economic conditions of telegraph, telephone, and cable systems
6. The stock exchange of any one city
7. Study of any one large monopoly corporation
8. Economic functions of middlemen
9. Advertising in a single small city or community
10. Tax rates of a single county
11. Special phases of the labor problem

As to distribution of time, it is suggested that the approximate time allotment be as follows:

Topic	Number of Weeks
I. Production.....	2
II. Exchange.....	4
III. Distribution.....	2
IV. Consumption.....	2
V. Public economic activities.....	4
VI. Special problems.....	4
	18

MUSIC MEMORY CONTESTS

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One wonders if much of the looseness in speech, morals, dress, and conduct that characterizes the modern age is not directly traceable to the degradation of one of the fine arts, a universal art—music. Consider the popular music of today. It consists chiefly of ragtime and jazz.

Music and dancing are so closely allied that the degradation of the one means the degradation of the other. Jazz music means jazz dancing. It is difficult to say which precedes in the process of degeneration. In all probability the two move downward together.

Jazz dancing means the taking of liberties. Any inclination of the dancer to be bold and reckless is increased by the noisy, wild, simple *beat, beat* of the tantalizing music designed to appeal purely to the physical. The natural accompaniments of jazz dancing are slang, immodest dress, and a general lowering of moral standards.

But the fact remains that people must have music. By means of it they express practically every emotion. It necessarily follows that there must be popular music. What we as a people know familiarly and fondly is popular with us. We like the melodies that we can all “join in and sing.”

This liking of the human heart has been exploited and commercialized by unscrupulous individuals who, particularly since the war, have foisted upon the public such an unlimited quantity of “blues” as fairly to choke out any tendency or desire to hear the better music. The choking process, however, can be practiced only on the immature and uninformed. Fortunately, our country still counts in great numbers its trained leaders who can appreciate fine music and who cannot lend heart or voice to the support of ragtime or jazz.

John R. McMahon, in a forceful article on "Toddling to the Pit by the Jazz Route," makes the following pointed remarks:

Is America dancing, via the jazz route, hellward? . . . In so far as jazz dancing relaxes morality and undermines the institution of the family, it is an element of tremendously evil potentiality. . . . Jazz is a signboard on the road that was traveled by Greece and Rome. . . . Orgies of lewd dancing preceded the downfall of those nations. . . . Is not all America a little touched with jazz? . . . [The author visits dance halls.] If Beethoven should return to earth and witness the doings of such an orchestra he would thank Heaven for his deafness. The players were white men, and they did not yowl an accompaniment to their so-called music. Otherwise it seemed to be regulation jazz, with a couple of saxaphones, a violin, bass viol, piano, drum, cymbals, and probably some kitchenware. All this music had a droning, jerky incoherence interspersed with a spasmodic "blah! blah!" that reminded me of the way live sheep are turned into mutton.

I will say right here that nothing that we saw or heard had a more painful effect on me than the mutilation and degradation of divine music. If human beings care to wallow, it may be that they are fulfilling destiny, and the sooner they sink the better the atmosphere for those who survive. But why drag man's noblest art down to the level of the modern dance? Why make music disreputable and foul? We used to have cheap, commonplace, and tawdry music. Now we have music that is fit only to be arraigned in night court and given an indeterminate sentence in the house of correction. . . .

If Moses had foreseen the jazz he would have written an eleventh commandment. . . . The dancers wiggled, jiggled, and hopped about. . . . It was a free-for-all, every hold permissible and no referee to break clinches. . . . A feature of the *Café de Rank*, which is widely prevalent in connection with the jazz dance, was the dim if not religious illumination of the hall. . . . The zero hour of human degradation was reached in this public place. . . . It was indifferently viewed by persons of both sexes who no doubt regarded themselves as respectable. It is this state of moral indifference on the part of both sexes that seems most appalling. . . . [Jazz music and dance with resulting loose conduct], unless checked, in time will devastate our country.¹

People concerned with education and ideals are naturally the ones who note keenly the damaging effect of conditions that have prevailed for some time. But are not educators in some sense responsible for these conditions? Youth hardly can be blamed for them. The ignorant and uninformed cannot be held altogether accountable. To be sure, educators did not write any of the songs that are characterized by vulgarity and obscenity. They did not

¹ *Ladies Home Journal*, XXXVIII (November, 1921), 13.

promote music that appeals purely to the physical at the expense of mind and morals. They have had no part whatever in exploiting the public with cheap melodies. But what have educators done in a masterful way to satisfy the natural, human desire for expression in music? Just what have they done to supplant the ordinary and baser types with music of an uplifting and elevating character? Just how much of sweetness and loveliness and idealism in the form of fine music have they brought into the life of the school child?

"Music lessons" have been given for centuries; yet instructors admit that they have found little time for developing music appreciation. Public-school music has had years of opportunity to create taste, and it deserves great credit for good that has been accomplished. But the obvious need is not supplied in a large way by these or by any other types of training that have long been in operation.

The "check" which Mr. McMahon regards as essential to the preservation of our civilization appears in the form of a recent movement. It is the music memory contest, one of the finest forms of competition and at the same time one of the best fields for co-operation that the educational world has ever known. This movement promises great results: first, in familiarizing persons with the better music; second, in developing music appreciation; third, in creating a desire to use, and sometimes even to produce, fine music.

The music memory contest represents a type of activity in which all pupils may engage, in which a whole community may participate actively for months at a time, and in which everyone takes a part with positive benefit to himself. The music memory contest is unquestionably the greatest force in operation today in combating the evils accompanying low-grade music. It does its clean, effective work, not by attacking ragtime and jazz at every point, but rather by providing means for gaining a knowledge and appreciation of the kind of music that is infinitely superior in its influence.

It is noteworthy that the music memory contest originated in a home. Mr. C. M. Tremaine, now director of the National

Bureau for the Advancement of Music, is entitled to the credit for having started it as a game with his children. He later introduced it to the local supervisor of music, Miss Mabel E. Bray, who favored his plans for trying it in the schools of their city, Westfield, New Jersey. The following is a partial list of more than two hundred cities and towns, representing approximately three-fourths of the states, that have conducted one or more of the contests:

Birmingham, Ala.	Oklahoma City, Okla.
Cleveland, Ohio	Portland, Ore.
Duluth, Minn.	Raleigh, N.C.
Erie, Pa.	Richmond, Va.
Grand Rapids, Mich.	Rochester, N.Y.
Helena, Mont.	Salt Lake City, Utah
Los Angeles, Cal.	St. Louis, Mo.
Louisville, Ky.	Seattle, Wash.

Mrs. Agnes Moore Fryeberger, director of music at the State Teachers College, San Diego, California, was chairman of a contest in May, 1921, which was entered into heartily by the city of San Diego and neighboring towns. The fine spirit of co-operation between twenty-seven different organizations—musical and educational—was in itself distinctive.

Five weeks were given to thoughtful listening to forty musical masterpieces. Twenty-four contestants scored perfect cards and were rewarded with ten dollars each; forty-two others had cards with only one small mistake. Fourteen scholarships, each for a term of free musical instruction, were also given by leading teachers of voice, piano, organ, violin, and other orchestral instruments.

The enthusiasm was so general that it was decided to make the contest an annual event.

Professor Edward Bailey Birge, now of Indiana University, has held two music memory contests in the public schools of Indianapolis, Indiana. He says of the project that "it is worth doing, not only once, but every year." In his first work, high schools competed with one another, each sending a team of ten to participate in the finals. Later the contest was introduced into the grades.

The map of Texas is dotted with cities that have held music memory contests. It would be impossible here to mention all of the

systems that have done meritorious work. Miss Willie Stephens, supervisor at Austin, Texas, used the music memory contest "as a final résumé of a four and one-half months' course in music appreciation. The entire town was interested, and co-operation from every musician was the keynote of success."

Miss Sudie Williams, of Dallas, Texas, said of her first contest that "it did not introduce a new phase of work into the schools, but it certainly seemed to vitalize it as nothing else could have done. The people of Dallas are proud of the record made by the children, and all forces that served the cause are ready to help make the contest of this year [1920] just as successful." Her third contest is now under way, the project having become an annual event.

The *New York Globe* printed the following paragraph when the contests were introduced into the schools of New York City:

Plans have been completed for a city-wide music memory contest for the pupils in the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary schools. The object is to increase the musical knowledge of the pupils and to stimulate their appreciation of good music by familiarizing them with standard compositions of this and other countries. By this means it is hoped, not only to advance the general culture of the pupils, but also to keep alive in the schools the wave of patriotic enthusiasm which has arisen during the past two years.

New York has done considerable contest work since the foregoing was written.

The Chattanooga Woman's Club, of Chattanooga, Tennessee, sponsored a contest given in the public schools of that city under the direction of Mrs. A. S. Dickey, supervisor of music.

Madison, Wisconsin, is now in the midst of its third music memory contest. Professor Peter W. Dykema, director, conducts city-wide contests of a most comprehensive nature. Adults as well as children enter the competition. In his last contest there were 3,200 entries in the preliminaries; 1,200 gained admission to the finals; and 220 persons handed in perfect papers, thus making it necessary to conduct another and more difficult contest to determine the winners.

Out of the efforts to promote better music in this city by means of the music memory contest has grown a new organization, the Madison Community Music Committee, "a group of music lovers

formed to further the greater social uses of music in Madison." Music performance is being included in the third contest, violin and piano contestants being admitted. In each of the first two contests "rather elaborate prizes of considerable monetary value were presented. It is the plan this year to give prizes of honorary or symbolic value."

A carefully worked out high-school contest was held last year at the Thornton Township High School, Harvey, Illinois. The theaters, newspapers, churches, and civic, musical, and social organizations freely supported the movement. The final concert was given by twenty-two members of a leading Chicago orchestra. A new contest to be conducted on a still more elaborate scale is now under way.

One of the results of this school's work in music, stimulated by the contest, was the composition of instrumental and vocal numbers. Another outgrowth of the contest has been the interest created throughout the school in the development of a taste for better music. For example, the science department is making an effort to instal in the high school wireless equipment which will make it possible for the students, assembled in the auditorium, to hear grand opera and other musical programs given in nearby cities.

The subject of prizes is receiving not a little consideration from persons concerned with contest work. There is no question that the giving of cash and other individual prizes in early contests has proved to be a valuable stimulus in the work. It seems to be the consensus of opinion, however, that, since the advantages gained from the competition are in themselves such a fine reward, it is better to eliminate the individual prizes as far as possible and to present each successful contestant with a certificate or some other inexpensive symbol of achievement and to award the winning team or school a banner or cup.

Professor Birge says:

A banner need be the only trophy, for the winning of which school spirit and loyalty will be sufficient incentive. If the banner be of proper size, it can be used a great many years, the name of the winning team being placed thereon each year.

In the event that different schools form a league to compete against one another, a cup might be used as a prize. This would

pass from year to year into the possession of the school that wins in the annual competition.

For the convenience of those who may be interested in conducting music memory contests the following general directions are given:

1. Furnish each pupil with a copy of the approved list of compositions.
2. Provide means whereby the selections may be heard.
3. Encourage home study.
4. In presenting numbers on programs give incidents in the lives of the composers and tell the stories of the productions.
5. Arrange parties, in and out of school, for playing the music memory game, popular classics.
6. Secure the co-operation of music dealers, music organizations of the community, managers of motion-picture theaters, and editors of newspapers and magazines.
7. Conduct a preliminary contest for the purpose of selecting from each school, club, or other organization a definite number of persons to participate in the final contest. Award certificates of merit to the winners to admit them to the finals.
8. Conduct the final contest in a large auditorium. Invite the general public. Appoint judges. Provide each contestant with a pencil and a numbered competition card. In order that guests may have the pleasure of testing their knowledge, provide them with competition cards of a different color. Each contestant writes on his card his name and, if desired, the name of the organization he represents. Below this he writes the titles of the compositions and the names of the composers in the order in which the selections are played. Collect the cards and give them to the judges. An accepted method of scoring is to give three points for each correct title and two points for each correct composer. One point is deducted for each misspelled word. Entertain the audience, while the judges are out, with musical numbers, speeches, and community singing. The list of compositions should also be read. When the judges reappear, announce the names of the winners and present the prizes and certificates of award.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Educational measurements.—There has been a widespread demand for a textbook for use with college classes in educational measurements which includes suitable material relating to the construction and use of tests and practical statistical treatment of assembled data. A recent volume¹ by Professor McCall promises to meet this demand rather adequately.

The author has brought together a large part of the current material on the use and construction of tests and has added a valuable section on the simpler statistical methods. Thus the student who is familiar with the tests commonly in use may proceed to the more important problems of application and technique. The book appears to be adapted for use with graduate students, although portions of the text may be read with profit by any teacher.

The great need for more work on the foundations of educational science is partly met by a series of fourteen "theses" which appear in the first chapter. While these include some rather debatable and ill-defined propositions, they furnish a significant background for more constructive thinking of a foundational type than some writers have exercised in the past. The chapters on the classification of pupils and the evaluation of efficiency of instruction are very suggestive. A complete pupil-classification program is worked out in detail, while in other chapters various applications of tests are elaborated point by point. The setting up of objectives in terms of the individual pupil's possibilities rather than in terms of group performance is a distinctive feature of the treatment of the classification problem. In discussing the preparation and scaling of test material the author includes a good summary of the older methods with a complete account of his own contributions. The section on statistics deals with the elementary methods in common use. The treatment is simple and clear, which will recommend it to those troubled by the more advanced texts.

On the whole, the book appears to be a timely contribution in the field of educational measurements. If it succeeds in helping forward "the movement for making teaching a genuine profession," as stated in the Preface, its contribution will be indeed significant.

K. J. HOLZINGER

¹ WILLIAM A. McCALL, *How to Measure in Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1922. Pp. xii+416. \$3.25.

The teacher's first course in psychology.—While it has long been customary to begin the would-be teacher's professional training with a course in "pure" psychology, the average student has usually found it difficult to see just how this has much direct bearing on the practical work of teaching. More recently the tendency has been to introduce the beginner directly to educational problems through a first course in the scientific study of education or in the psychology of learning. An interesting variant of the latter plan is embodied in a recent text¹ by Professor Cameron. The author attempts, with a considerable measure of success, to accomplish in this book the rather difficult task of presenting, in a single, coherent treatment, the essential features of general psychology, educational psychology, and the psychology of the fundamental school subjects.

In the first eleven chapters Professor Cameron presents, from a standpoint which might be characterized as a moderately conservative functionalism, the traditional psychological categories, but with constant reference to their practical bearings and to the part played by learning and development. The next four chapters deal respectively with "Learning," "Transfer of Training," "Individual Differences," and "Mental Development." Then follow chapters which suggest the principal psychological processes involved in reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic. The book concludes with a summary chapter which reviews the whole field from the biological standpoint and an appendix showing in detail a typical standardized test (Illinois Examination II). The earlier chapters tie up with the later chapters in direct and natural fashion, largely because of the central genetic and practical emphases, without leaving the awkward gaps usually so obtrusive in such an attempt.

Professor Cameron has evidently set as his aim the cultivation of a helpful viewpoint for thinking about school problems and has refrained from suggesting numerous moot issues and matters of detail which are necessary in later stages of professional study but which confuse rather than help the beginner. The choice of topics and the distribution of emphasis reveal care and good judgment. Fifty well-selected illustrations, diagrams, and tables supplement the text. As a first book for prospective teachers or as a reading book for teachers without adequate professional training, it should prove very useful.

F. A. KINGSBURY

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

A study of Illinois high schools.—Many interesting phases of the development and administration of public high schools are brought to light from time to time by the reports of state supervisory officers. Frequently these reports present, in addition to the customary statistical compilations, significant analytical studies based upon certain of the conditions indicated by the tabu-

¹ EDWARD HERBERT CAMERON, *Psychology and the School*. New York: Century Co., 1921. Pp. xiv+339. \$2.00.

lated data. A recent report¹ on the high schools of Illinois includes a study of two problems of vital concern to those interested in high-school teaching and administration.

The first is an analysis of the relation of training and experience to the salaries of teachers in 370 accredited high schools of the state and a comparison of the salaries of teachers of different subjects in the high school. Among approximately 850 men teachers, principals and superintendents excluded, it is shown that for the year 1920-21 the median salary of those whose academic and professional training was limited to less than two years above the high school was \$1,825 as compared with \$1,912 for those with four years of college or university training. For those men with five or more years of advanced training, the median salary was \$2,036. For the corresponding groups among 2,446 women teachers, the median salaries were \$1,393, \$1,491, and \$1,627, respectively. Of all the teachers included in the study, 7.8 per cent of the men and 5.5 per cent of the women had less than two years of college training; 43.5 per cent of the men and 55.8 per cent of the women had four years of training, while 22 per cent of the men and 18.5 per cent of the women reported five or more years of college work.

Omitting those whose work is in part administrative and those who teach more than one period per day in subjects not closely related to their specialty, the median salaries of men vary from \$1,733 for language teachers to \$1,971 for practical arts teachers and \$2,043 for those engaged in physical training. The median salaries for women, on the other hand, range from \$1,429 in the fine arts to \$1,554 in mathematics. It is interesting to note that, while the salaries for both men and women teachers are in general high in mathematics and relatively low in the fine arts, there are certain striking differences in other subjects. Thus, among the men, the median salary of 60 social science teachers is less than that for four of the six other clearly defined groups, while the median salary of 180 women teachers in this field is higher than that for five of the six other similar groups. Again, while the highest salary of men teachers is paid to physical directors, the next to the lowest salary for seven corresponding groups of women teachers is paid to those in charge of physical training for the girls.

The second analytical study presented in this report deals with the relation of the percentage of men teachers in the faculty to the proportion of boys among the students. Ranking 400 accredited high schools according to the percentage of men teachers employed and on the basis of the percentage of boys in the student body, the coefficient of correlation is found to be only .14. When the schools are grouped according to size, it is noted that for schools of less than 100 pupils and for the schools enrolling from 100 to 300 pupils the coefficient is negligible, while there is a slight positive correlation in the case of the 64 schools enrolling 300 or more pupils. If the schools are grouped

¹ *Report of the High School Visitor for the Year 1920-21*, University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XVIII, No. 33. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1921. Pp. 68.

according as the percentage of men teachers is from 0 to 14, 15 to 29, 35 to 49 and 50 or more, it is found that the percentage of boys in the student body is for these groups 43.8, 43.3, 45.6, and 45.9, respectively. The indication is that the slight differences shown are to be explained by factors other than the ratio of men to women teachers in the schools considered.

Mental tests in Indiana high schools.—The success of survey methods in the field of education has stimulated the application of this form of technique to a variety of specific problems. An example of the use of such methods in the field of mental measurements appears in a recent report¹ by Professor Book which is based upon a state survey of the intelligence of high-school Seniors in Indiana.

The survey was conducted by the department of psychology of Indiana University with the co-operation of the Indiana State Board of Education. The original purpose of the investigation was the location of the most superior members of the high-school graduating classes in order that better provision might be made for a continuation of their education. The basic data for the survey were secured through the use of one of the Pressey intelligence tests in the case of some six thousand high-school Seniors in May, 1919. A considerable body of supporting information concerning the pupils was secured at the time the tests were given.

The major portion of the book is taken up with an extended analysis of the returns from the tests. After a brief chapter pointing out the range and distribution of the intelligence of high-school Seniors, the author presents a series of chapters showing the relation of intelligence to such factors as college intention, acceleration and retardation, school marks, occupational intention, courses of study pursued, subject preference, occupational and economic class, size and type of community, and sex differences. The latter part of the book consists of general conclusions and interpretations with liberal suggestions as to desirable readjustments and reforms.

The significance of the results and interpretations of the survey depends entirely upon the validity of the original data. No amount of multiplication of cases or of types of comparison can offset this fundamental factor. Since the relation of intelligence to scholastic record has been repeatedly studied, the correlation between these factors furnishes an important index of the value of the survey. This correlation between intelligence tests score and the average school mark "ranged for the different high-school subjects from .25 to .52; for all subjects studied during the Junior year from .282 for the boys to .277 for the girls. For all subjects studied during the entire high-school course by a representative group of 124 high-school Seniors, it was .47, P.E. .05" (pp. 109 f.).

¹ WILLIAM F. BOOK, *The Intelligence of High School Seniors*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1922. Pp. xviii+371. \$2.40.

The author has considerable difficulty in creating confidence in results possessing such low correlation. Nor does he increase the reader's confidence when he adds data for a "representative group" of 124 Seniors, selected from a single high school in Indianapolis, showing a correlation coefficient of .47, which is 20 points higher than for the six thousand cases. This group is "representative" neither in method of selection nor in the results pictured.

A further point of criticism concerns the loose manner in which the statistical material is presented. On page 21, for example, a chart appears which shows the distribution of intelligence for the entire group of subjects. Letters are assigned for the intervals on the base line ranging from A+ to F. The interval for grade A+ is 20 points; for grade C, 5 points; for grade F, 45 points; and for each of the other grades, 10 points. The reasons for this unequal division of the base line are adequately explained in the accompanying text. However, on page 33, two distribution curves are shown, using, on the horizontal axis, the same letter scores as on page 21, but *distributed equally* across the base line. This distortion of the base-line units, which entirely invalidates the interpretation of the curve, appears frequently throughout the book. Another error of the same character appears in the percentile curves, as, for example, on page 30. Here equal distances on the base line are given unit values of 5, 15, 10, 20, and 4 points, producing curves of distorted shape. Such statistical presentations are inexcusable in a report of this character.

The discussion of suggested reforms and of the value and uses of mental tests, which appears in the latter part of the book, is rather uncritically optimistic. The limitations of the present types of mental tests in dealing with vocational guidance and with moral delinquency are passed over lightly.

As an example of the survey method applied to a specific field, the book is very suggestive. It contains much information which is valuable, and it emphasizes a number of very important educational problems. But, as an example of a report of a major investigation in the field of educational research, it offers many loopholes for the type of criticism which the science of education is particularly anxious to avoid.

G. T. BUSWELL

Survey of a consolidated school district.—That the problems of the rural consolidated district are in certain respects peculiar to this type of school organization is to be inferred from the difficulties commonly encountered in the process of establishing and administering the schools of such districts. A recent study¹ of a rural high-school district in Colorado throws some light on the sources and the nature of these problems and makes a number of suggestions with a view to correcting certain conditions.

Since social and economic conditions within the organized area are the evident source of many of the problems of the consolidated school, the survey commission very properly undertook an analysis of these conditions. A

¹ *The Fruita Survey.* Fruita, Colorado: Board of Education, 1921. Pp. 111.

description is given of the geographical features of the district, the location of the schools, the nature and value of the land, and the varying characteristics of the six common-school districts which the union high-school district comprises. The social and religious interests of the communities are analyzed, and the social and recreational activities of the schools are shown in their relation to the needs of the whole population of the district. The recommendations of the survey staff, urging larger provisions for recreational opportunities in connection with the schools in the form of better playgrounds, an athletic director, gymnasium, library, etc., are in keeping with the standards generally accepted for rural schools designed to serve as social centers. Certain apparent advantages of combining the six elementary-school districts are noted in the report, and it is recommended that such organization be effected. In a later section of the report, a detailed plan for consolidation is presented. In the discussion of the religious life of the people of the district, the report notes the presence of eight distinct Protestant organizations, most of which are without church buildings and are compelled to use the schoolhouses for such meetings as are held. It is recommended that these Protestant denominations give up their separate organizations and unite in the support of a single community church. In this section of the survey report the analysis of community conditions appears to have been made carefully and thoughtfully, and doubtless the measures suggested by the survey staff would tend to improve some of the conditions noted; but it is questionable whether specific recommendations of the type here found should be made a part of the report of an outside examining body.

The other sections of the report deal with the usual topics of testing, inspecting buildings and other physical conditions, analyzing the curriculum, teaching staff, plan of organization, etc. While many specific recommendations are made, the report in certain instances, as in the discussion of a salary schedule for teachers and in the chapter dealing with administrative policy, follows the more wholesome practice of explaining the principles which should guide the administration in formulating a sound basis of procedure.

The report will prove of interest to county superintendents and principals of consolidated schools, as well as to those who contemplate the organization of consolidated districts in rural territory, because of the detailed descriptions of conditions obtaining in one such district which has an apparently ordinary setting. The plan of the survey, the organization and treatment of the data, and the form of presentation of the material are in the main similar to those of most other rural school surveys.

N. B. HENRY

Philosophy of education.—At the present time we find very little in current literature on philosophical subjects. We have assumed the attitude that we are not interested so much in theory as in results. Educational philosophy has suffered along with general philosophy. The educational literature of

today deals almost exclusively with matters of scientific method or subjects closely allied to it. A book, then, on the subject of the philosophy of education comes to us almost with the freshness of new subject-matter. Such is the book by Mr. Bode,¹ who admits quite frankly that he has written on the philosophy of education.

The purpose and scope of the book are well described by the author in the Preface:

The purpose of this volume is to interpret present-day educational problems from the standpoint of pragmatic philosophy. The discussion is centered chiefly on two main topics: viz., the aims or ideals which should be dominant in education, and the nature of the mind or intelligence with which education has to deal. The book is written in the conviction that educational theory and practice have been vitiated by preconceptions which were historically inevitable but which are unjustifiable in the light of modern knowledge. These preconceptions must be eliminated if education is to make its proper contribution toward the enrichment of life and toward making the world safe for democracy. . . . Unless the study of detailed problems is properly correlated with theory, there is serious danger that education will simply become more complicated, and perhaps more mechanical, and not an agency of progress and reform [p. v].

The author emphasizes those things which are back of the practical everyday problems, the things upon which our sense of values depends, the things for which we must go outside of the limits of the study of education as narrowly defined. To do this he reviews some of the theories which have been most commonly accepted, suggesting possible avenues of reorganization but leaving the final conclusions and applications to the reader. A critical evaluation of several of the philosophical theories—the soul-substance theory, the doctrine of mental states, and consciousness as behavior—which have been most closely related to educational thought, with special reference to their effects upon educational thinking, and an added plea for a recognition of a place for educational theory in the field of education bring the book to its close.

This book may be used to advantage as a textbook for classroom instruction in a course in the philosophy of education. A wider and more significant use of the volume, however, should result from the need which teachers who are dealing with the practical aspects of education feel for a better understanding of the theory underlying the applied methods. A philosophy of education cannot entirely fill this need, but, worked out as it is in Mr. Bode's book, it cannot help but be of great benefit to teachers both in their educational courses and in their teaching.

ERNST WELLEMAYER

Measuring results in physics.—The effort to formulate objective standards by which the results of the teaching in a given subject can be measured is one of the first steps toward an improvement in the practices in regard to that

¹ BOYD H. BODE, *Fundamentals of Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1921. Pp. xi+245.

subject. In high-school physics there has been particular need of scientific inquiry in order to help solve many of the vital questions arising, such as the proper relation of laboratory to recitation work, how best to meet the needs of the majority of the students, and various other problems dealing with the equipment necessary for carrying on good work. Dr. Camp, in a recent study,¹ has derived scales for measuring the results of physics teaching, hoping thus to enable more definite evidence to be brought to bear on some of the foregoing problems.

Taking as the aims of physics teaching in the high school both knowledge of the fundamental principles and the ability to put this knowledge into use in everyday life, the author has selected and formulated exercises, the correct handling of which involves the ability specified. The study limits itself to three important phases of physics teaching, namely, mechanics, heat, and electricity and magnetism, dealing only with those facts, principles, and laws which are commonly taught in the high school. In order to make the test exercises as objective as possible, the best principles yet evolved for the measurement of physics information were used as requirements for all the exercises.

The problems range from simple to more and more complex, thus enabling one to find the relative ability of any individual or group of individuals. In the evaluation of this test material the relative difficulty of any test exercise was determined by the percentage of pupils who solved it correctly, regardless of the amount of time required. This method, of course, assumes that the distribution of physics abilities, of which the exercises are a measure, conforms to the normal curve of frequency. This assumption is justified by the results of the preliminary tests, which were given to 3,500 boys and girls in the high schools in Iowa. The relative difficulties having been determined by the preliminary tests, the problems of equal difficulty were then grouped together. Beginning with an arbitrarily selected zero point, the exercises were located on a linear scale, the group of exercises of median difficulty having a scale value of 6.

The scales may be used advantageously, as tests of different types can be readily formed from the scales. Both correct and incorrect answers are given for each problem, as well as the average time required for its solution. Tentative standards have already been worked out for the Iowa high-school children. The scales will be of value in the measurement of achievement in physics in the phases of the subject with which they deal.

SHIRLEY HAMRIN

Religious education.—The movement for religious education has received considerable impetus during the last few years. The general awakening to the necessity for doing something systematically and on a comprehensive

¹ HAROLD LAVERNE CAMP, *Scales for Measuring Results of Physics Teaching*. Studies in Education, Vol. II, No. 2. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, 1921. Pp. 51.

basis has led to a more careful study of the conditions obtaining in most communities. The attempts to carry on more or less systematic programs of religious training have been subjected to the most critical scrutiny with a view to learning what is proving effective and what is largely unproductive. One of the handicaps to the development of systematic religious education has been the lack of a definite guide in organization and administration. In view of the great need for guidance in formulating the administrative program of religious education, a recent book by Mr. Stout¹ is a timely contribution to the movement. The point of view from which the book is written is expressed concisely in the third paragraph of the author's Preface, which reads as follows:

It seems obvious that the only way to secure the proper functioning of the religious motive in education is to use effectively the educational method in religion. The various problems dealt with in the book have therefore been treated from the educational point of view [p. 9].

The author discusses the social service and educational function of the church. He sets forth the aims of religious education and presents a detailed program for carrying on a comprehensive scheme of religious training. An account is given in detail of the community organizations now existing and of the necessity for developing community week-day schools for the religious work. The most constructive part of the whole discussion, however, is contained in the chapters devoted to the training of teachers, the selection and supervision of teachers, and the management of pupils. The discussions in these chapters are very definite applications of well-recognized educational principles to the field of religious education. The applications are not only educationally sound from the standpoint of pedagogical theory but also very practical and point definitely to specific ends. The account of religious training in church schools and in higher institutions is well handled and contributes materially to the completeness of the work as a whole.

The book is stimulating and will be helpful in giving definite direction to the organization and administration of religious education. It should be a very practical book for students in training for the ministry, and every Sunday-school superintendent and minister of the gospel will find it an indispensable aid in working out their problems of teacher-training for religious work. The book will be valuable to students of secular education in giving a broader view of the application of pedagogical principles to fields of work not ordinarily considered in the study of education.

H. W. NUTT

Lessons in citizenship.—An excellent course of instruction for use by candidates for citizenship is contained in a recent bulletin of the Bureau of Naturalization.² This course consists of a series of six lessons on the Declara-

¹ JOHN ELBERT STOUT, *The Organization and Administration of Religious Education*. New York: Abingdon Press, 1922. Pp. 287.

² RAYMOND F. CRIST, *Federal Citizenship Textbook*, Part III. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1921. Pp. 104.

tion of Independence and twenty-four lessons on the Constitution of the United States. Each section of these two documents is presented in simplified form, immediately followed by the original text.

It is intended that this part of the *Federal Citizenship Textbook* shall place before the candidates for naturalization in the public schools who are on the threshold of American citizenship an opportunity to catch the spirit of these two expressions of the greatest of all governmental aspirations [p. 3].

The important words are listed at the beginning of each lesson, duly inflected, that they may serve as a spelling lesson and aid in the development of the vocabulary of the prospective citizen. Before taking up the study of the Constitution a "Short History of America to the Time the Constitution Was Adopted (1492 to 1789)" is presented in order to give the individual a sufficient background for further study. Accompanying the text is a large diagram illustrating the different departments of our government in their relation to each other.

The lessons are simple and well adapted for instruction in citizenship. The text will serve not only as a valuable course of instruction for use in the public schools for candidates for citizenship, but also as an excellent guide in the home for training foreign-born men and women in the ideals and principles of our democracy.

W. D. BOWMAN

The American government.—Authors of books on American government have disagreed both as to what should be included in such a text and as to what should be known by good American citizens. Some authors have written for the student of American government who is interested in gaining a full and exhaustive account of the history and development of American governmental machinery, while others have been interested in presenting only those factors of government with which the average citizen should be acquainted.

The aim and scope of a recent book¹ on the American government are summarized in the following quotation:

The aim is to present in brief compass a general view of American government. The needs and interests of the average American citizen and voter have been kept in mind. While the work cannot go into complete detail, nevertheless, it attempts to give a broad survey of the vital factors in our national, state, city, and town government [p. ii].

The general topics and the order of their treatment are similar to those in other books on American government. The author begins his discussion with a short treatise on the English origins of our government and follows that discussion with a review of the formation of the union between the thirteen colonies. Other chapters deal with "The National and State Constitutions,"

¹ KENNETH COLGROVE, *American Citizens and Their Government*. New York: Abingdon Press, 1921. Pp. 333.

"Citizenship and Suffrage," "Political Parties," "The President," "Congress," "National Administration," etc., the discussion closing with "A Review of Government Progress." The essential difference between this book and many others in the same field is the copious treatment of the more general topics. The method of treatment may be illustrated by a quotation from the chapter on "State Welfare and Administration."

The work of the states in the promotion of the public welfare may be described under nine heads: (1) education, (2) vocational training, (3) public health, (4) charities and correction, (5) business protection and regulation, (6) labor conditions, (7) military and police, (8) public property and the conservation of natural resources, and (9) taxation and finance [pp. 233-34].

Nineteen pages are then devoted to separate discussions of each division.

As a book giving a broad and general survey of some of the more important factors of American government, it may well be commended. As a book supplying the needs of the "average" American, it can hardly be said to suffice. It seems that before the needs of the good citizen can be met, the specific qualities and needs of the good citizen should first be more specifically defined.

JAMES VAUGHN

Value of Latin and Greek.—The controversy between those in favor of the study of the classical languages and those opposed to such study is an old one. For more than a hundred years this topic has been debated, each side trying to bring some new evidence to bear in its favor. Attention to this subject has been stimulated recently by an investigation of the General Education Board, which is attempting to find the definite aims and objectives for the teaching of high-school Latin. For this reason there will be considerable interest in a new volume² which is presented with the following aims in view:

[The book] endeavors to bring together the best that has been written on both sides of the old controversy over the value of the study of Latin and Greek languages, to give biographical references to a wider field of the best literature on the question, and to include debators' briefs in which the whole argument on each side is presented in skeleton form [p. vi].

The author has undertaken to eliminate the bitterness and slurs which have too often accompanied these discussions, giving as far as possible all of the facts and best opinions on both sides of the question.

Both affirmative and negative briefs are given for the question, "Resolved, that a wise choice of studies in high school or college would include Latin (and Greek)." Complete bibliographies are followed by an introduction in which Mr. Beman shows that in American public high schools the percentage of pupils studying Latin has changed from 34 per cent in 1890 to 50 per cent in 1900 and back to 37 per cent in 1915. The figures for Greek are 3 per cent of the total number of pupils in 1890 and .29 per cent in 1915.

² LAMAR T. BEMAN, *Selected Articles on the Study of Latin and Greek*. "The Handbook Series." New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1921. Pp. li+237.

The affirmative discussion contains articles by such men as Shorey, Bryce, Cole, and Perkins. These discussions are followed by many brief excerpts from the literature favoring cultural training; the same general plan is observed in the negative discussion, where Snedden, Flexner, Bain, Hall, Starch, and others are quoted at length. In the report of the study by Mr. Starch objective evidence is given to show that the scholastic records of students in the university who enter with Latin are only to a slight and negligible extent better than those made by students with modern language training.

The book is carefully planned and will prove valuable to those interested in studying this topic from an unbiased viewpoint.

SHIRLEY HAMRIN

School subjects and the learning process.—Effective direction of the work of pupils in learning from school textbooks implies a definite understanding on the part of the teacher of the types of mental activity required of pupils in the preparation of different lesson assignments. A study¹ has been made to determine the opinions of teachers with reference to the major types of textbook study required of pupils in eleven of the subjects of the seventh and eighth grades and the high school.

The statements of the teachers were secured by means of a questionnaire, the report being based upon 317 answers. Answers to questions were requested of teachers for only the subjects they were then teaching or had taught. To provide a uniform basis upon which the teachers might state the types of learning their assignments required, a list of twelve types was submitted with the questionnaire. These types of learning were based upon an analysis of the learning process in terms of direct or specific outcomes of textbook study and were limited to those which are evidently required in study in which reading is the central activity. The list includes comprehension of material read plus memorization, the preparation of a summary of the central ideas of the assignment, the preparation of a comprehensive outline, obtaining information for the purpose of solving problems, extension of the range of information, discovery of collateral or illustrative material, enlargement of vocabulary, an understanding of statements or principles, comprehension of the conditions of a problem, discovery of new or supplementary problems, drawing valid conclusions from data or statements, and following directions with accuracy and speed.

In general, the replies received may be taken to represent present practice so far as the subjects covered by the study are concerned. The author presents certain tentative conclusions based upon his interpretations of the results of the inquiry. It is noted that the teachers had some difficulty in defining major types of study, some regarding all those suggested as of major importance,

¹ WALTER S. MONROE, *Types of Learning Required of Pupils in the Seventh and Eighth Grades and in the High School*. Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin, No. 7. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois, 1921. Pp. 16.

others making their replies in terms of only two or three. No type of study is mentioned by all the teachers, and those most frequently mentioned vary for the different subjects. This fact leads the author to urge that the teacher of each subject give training to the pupils in the type of learning required by that subject.

Tables are also included, showing the rating of the different types of learning from the standpoint of difficulty to the pupil and from the standpoint of difficulty of training the pupil as these are judged by the teachers replying to the questionnaire. It is interesting to note that "drawing valid conclusions from given data or statements" is considered most difficult in both these respects.

The report is enlightening in its evidence of disagreement among teachers as to the major outcomes of teaching certain subjects and is suggestive of a type of analysis of the problem which obviously tends toward a better understanding of the nature of the difficulties of both learning and teaching in the school subjects considered.

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GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

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Bulletin No. 8, 1921—*Foreign Criticism of American Education*.

Bulletin No. 26, 1921—*Educational Survey of Elizabeth City, North Carolina*.

Bulletin No. 33, 1921—*Music Departments of Libraries*.

Bulletin No. 42, 1921—*Teacher Placement by Public Agencies*.

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MURRAY, ROBERT H. *Dublin University and the New World*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1921. Pp. 96.

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